00083717

BOMBAY BRANCH
OF THE
Royal Asiatic Society.

Digitized with financial assistance from the
Government of Maharashtra
on 15 June, 2016

910.4
Cox/Tra
83717

51783

00083717

CONTENTS of VOLUME III.

BOOK V.

TRAVELS into RUSSIA.

CHAP.

I. *ACCOUNT of* Peter III.—*Revolution of* MDCCLXII. p. 1

II. *History of prince* Ivan.—*Account of his parents and family.—Biographical anecdotes of count* Munic. p. 47

III. *Rebellion of* Pugatchef. p. 100

IV. *Knoot.—Penal laws.—Remarks upon the supposed suppression of capital punishments by* Elizabeth.—*Abolition of torture.—Outlines of new regulations.* p. 120

V. *Inquiry*

CHAP.

V. *Inquiry into the preſent ſtate of civilization in the* Ruſſian *empire.—Nobles.—Clergy.—Merchants and Burghers.—Peaſants.—General remarks.—State of vaſſalage.* p. 149

VI. *Academies of ſciences and arts.—Society for the promotion of agriculture.—Corps de cadets.—Couvent des demoiſelles nobles.* p. 189

VII. *Anecdotes of profeſſor* Pallas.—*Circumſtances of Dr.* Samuel Gmelin's *death.—Travels of* Guldenſtaedt. p. 250

VIII. Sclavonian *alphabet.—Inquiry into the riſe and progreſs of* Ruſſian *literature.—Hiſtorians.—Poets.—On the* Ruſſian *ſtage.*—Ruſſian *tranſlations.—Claſſical learning.* p. 282

BOOK

BOOK VI.

CHAP.

I. *Population and revenues.* p. 341

II. *Admiralty.—Expedition to* Cronſtadt.—*Navy and army.* p. 350

III. *Riſe and progreſs of the* Engliſh *trade to* Ruſſia.—*Commerce of the* Britiſh *factory to* Peterſburgh. p. 366

IV. *Commerce of the* Caſpian *Sea.—Deſcription of its principal ports.—General exports and imports.—Trade with the* Bucharians *and* Chineſe. p. 382

V. *Commerce of the* Black Sea.—*Harbours.* p. 407

VI. *Mines of* Ruſſia. p. 432

VII. *Canals of* Viſhnèi-Voloſhek *and* Ladoga. p. 444

CHAP.

VIII. *Divine ſervice in the* Sclavonian *and* Greek *tongues.—Bleſſing of the waters. —Public feaſts to the populace.—Baths. —Journey through* Ruſſian Finland. p. 453

APPENDIX.

N° 1. *Liſt of the* Ruſſian *navy* p. 477

N° 2. *Goods exported and imported by* Britiſh *ſhips.* p. 479

N° 3. *State of the* Ruſſian *army* p. 486

N° 4. *Geographical diviſion of the empire.* p. 497

N° 5. *Ruſſian governments* p. 522

LIST of the PLATES, &c. of Vol. III. with Directions for placing them.

Head of Peter III. from a rouble ſtruck during his reign - - - - p. 1

Head of Ivan, from a rouble ſtruck when he was emperor - - - - p. 47

Head of Pugatchef, from an original picture in the author's poſſeſſion, drawn when the impoſtor was in priſon - - - - - - p. 102

Chart of the Caſpian Sea - - - p. 382

Canals of Viſhnèi-Voloſhok and Ladoga - p. 444

Fin Peaſant - - - - p. 475

TRAVELS

TRAVELS

INTO

RUSSIA.

BOOK V.

Bayly sculp.

CHAP. I.

Account of Peter III.—*He is appointed great-duke by the empreſs* Elizabeth.—*Eſpouſes the princeſs of* Anhalt Zerbſt.—*Diſcontented.*—*Reſides at* Oranienbaum.—*Conſtructs a fortreſs.*—*Diſciplines the garriſon.*—*Intrigues to exclude him from the ſucceſſion.*—*Defeated.*—*Death of* Elizabeth.—*Acceſſion of* Peter.—*His rage for reformation.*—*Irritates by his imprudent conduct the clergy, the army, and the nobles.*—*His enthuſiaſtic admiration of the king of* Pruſſia *carried to a moſt ridiculous exceſs.*—*His inconſiſtent behaviour to his conſort* Catharine.—*Her great abilities, prudent conduct, and popularity.*—*Ill-treated by the emperor.*—

peror.—In danger of being arreſted.—Heads a party.—Meetings of the inſurgents.—Peter's *blindneſs and infatuation.*—Catharine *eſcapes from* Peterhof.—*Harangues the guards.—Aſcends the throne.—Her manifeſto.—Advances againſt the emperor.—His arrival at* Peterhof.—*Deſpondency and irreſolution.—Sails to* Cronſtadt.—*Is refuſed admittance.—Retires to* Oranienbaum.—*Reſigns himſelf into the hands of the empreſs.—Signs his abdication, is conveyed a priſoner to* Robſcha, *and dies.—His body laid in ſtate and interred.—Lenity of the empreſs to his adherents.*

THE revolution of 1741 placed Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great and Catharine I, upon the throne of Ruſſia. In the following year the empreſs nominated her nephew Charles Peter Ulrick, ſon of Charles Frederick duke of Holſtein Gottorp, and of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great, ſucceſſor to the crown. Accordingly that Prince, then only fourteen years of age, having publicly embraced the Greek religion, was appointed great-duke of Ruſſia, with the accuſtomed formalities; and aſſumed the name of Peter Feodorovitch. In 1745 he eſpouſed Sophia Auguſta princeſs of Anhalt Zerbſt, who, upon being

being re-baptized according to the rites of the Greek church, was called Catharine Alexiefna. She was born in 1729, and was ſixteen years of age at the time of her marriage. Their only iſſue were the preſent great-duke Paul, born 1754; and Anne, who was born in 1757, and died in 1761.

During the firſt years of their marriage the moſt perfect union ſubſiſted between them; which, however, was at length ſucceeded on both ſides by mutual averſion and diſguſt. Peter, whoſe mind had been warped by a bad education, and who was purpoſely eſtranged from political affairs, was held by Elizabeth in a ſtate of dependence: a prey to idleneſs, and without the power of amuſing himſelf with rational occupations of literature, he gave himſelf up to the moſt trifling purſuits, or to the loweſt gratifications. He was perpetually beſet by ſpies, who occaſionally made the moſt unfavourable reports of his conduct to that empreſs, ever ſuſpicious of his intentions; and who was conſtantly alarmed with the dread of a revolution ſimilar to that which had placed her upon the throne. At Peterſburgh he had apartments in the imperial palace; and lived more in the ſtyle of a ſtate priſoner, than of a ſucceſſor to the crown. When the empreſs re-

moved to Peterhof; he was permitted to reſide at his favourite palace of Oranienbaum; where he indulged that taſte for military purſuits, which became his ſole amuſement during the latter years of Elizabeth's reign. He began by drawing out his ſervants in a body; trained them to military exerciſe; and was accuſtomed to attend regularly at the hours appointed for that purpoſe. The empreſs, conſidering this employment as an innocent amuſement, and likely to draw his attention from political intrigues, ordered a ſmall body of ſoldiers to be draughted from ſeveral regiments; who were allowed to repair to Oranienbaum, and to be quartered in that place.

Peter, eager in the purſuit of his new occupation, built in the garden a fortreſs in miniature, a few feet ſquare, by which he ſtudied practical fortification. Pleaſed with his firſt eſſay, he cauſed a larger and more regular fortreſs to be conſtructed near the palace: within was a brick houſe for himſelf, called the governor's houſe, wooden habitations for the principal officers, and barracks capable of containing 1500 ſoldiers. Every thing wore a martial appearance: the hours of morning and evening parade were marked by the firing of cannon; a regular guard was ſtationed; the troops were

dreſſed in the German uniform; and taught, under his inſpection, the Pruſſian diſcipline. This houſe in the fortreſs was the principal ſcene of his convivial entertainments; there, when not employed in exerciſing his troops, or in iſſuing his military orders, he amuſed himſelf in drinking and ſmoking with the officers; and he generally puſhed the pleaſures of the table to an exceſs of intoxication.

Mean while, impatient of the conſtraint under which he was kept by the ſuſpicious Elizabeth, he occaſionally broke into open and bitter invectives: he was often heard to ſay, that he had been called into Ruſſia in order to be confined like a ſtate priſoner; frequently expreſſed a deſire to return into Holſtein; and founded his only hopes of comfort on the death of Elizabeth. Theſe expreſſions, always carried to the empreſs, and either wantonly exaggerated, or malignantly interpreted, made ſuch an impreſſion on that princeſs, who became more and more ſuſpicious as ſhe advanced in years; that ſhe was once nearly prevailed upon, by the chancellor Beſtuchef, to exclude him from the ſucceſſion; and to declare his ſon Paul her heir, and Catharine regent, in caſe of a minority. Beſtuchef repreſented to the empreſs, that Peter had by his conduct proved himſelf

unworthy of the crown; that he openly expreſſed the utmoſt contempt for the Ruſſian nation, and placed his whole confidence in foreigners; that he was guilty of the baſeſt ingratitude to her; and that ſhe would confer a ſignal ſervice upon her ſubjects, by excluding a perſon ſo diſqualified for directing the reins of empire. Elizabeth, won over by theſe arguments, and alarmed by the apprehenſions of a conſpiracy ſaid to be forming againſt her perſon, almoſt conſented to the propoſal; but, upon more ſerious reflection, ſhe perſevered in her former appointment of Peter; and Beſtuchef * was diſgraced. Such was the ſituation of the court, when Elizabeth died on the 25th of December, 1761.

Upon this event, Peter III. aſſumed the reins of government, with all the joy of a perſon enlarged from a long impriſonment into a ſtate of the moſt perfect liberty. He immediately releaſed the principal ſtate-priſoners who had been confined by Elizabeth: among theſe

* Of all the principal nobles diſgraced by Elizabeth, Beſtuchef was the only one who was not recalled to court by Peter III. A ſtrong proof of his intrigues againſt that prince; who, with all his weakneſs, was of a temper exceedingly humane and forgiving. He was recalled at the acceſſion of Catharine.

were

were Biron duke of Courland, marſhal Munich *, and Leſtof †; and in all ſtate affairs he conducted himſelf upon political principles diametrically oppoſite to thoſe of the late empreſs.

Elizabeth, at the time of her deceaſe, was, in conjunction with the courts of Vienna and Paris, engaged in a war with the king of Pruſſia; which promiſed a ſpeedy and glorious termination. Frederick's reſources were nearly exhauſted; and, notwithſtanding the vigorous and ſucceſsful oppoſition he had hitherto maintained, he ſeemed on the point of being overwhelmed by the number and perſeverance of his enemies. But Peter had no ſooner aſcended the throne; than, ſacrificing every other conſideration to his extravagant enthuſiaſm for the character of the Pruſſian monarch, he diſpatched an envoy to Berlin, in order to propoſe an immediate reconciliation. Frederick acceded to the propoſal without delay: and a ſuſ-

* For an account of Biron, ſee book v. c. ix. and of marſhal Munich the next chapter.

† Leſtof was a ſurgeon; by birth a German: he was favourite to Elizabeth, and aſſiſted her in planning the revolution of 1742. But that ungrateful princeſs forgot this favour; and, becauſe Leſtof became haughty and impertinent, ſhe baniſhed and detained him in priſon until ſhe died.

penſion

penſion of hoſtilities was ſoon concluded. Peter recalled his ſoldiers from the Auſtrian army: and in a ſhort interval ſent a reinforcement of 20,000 men to his favourite hero. Thus, within the ſpace only of a few months, Ruſſian troops joined the Pruſſian army, in order to drive from Sileſia thoſe very Auſtrians, who not long before had been brought into that province by the Ruſſian arms.

Having gratified his inclination in this treaty without conſulting his allies, or the intereſts and honour of his empire, he aimed at recovering his paternal inheritance, the duchy of Sleſvick; and was determined to involve his ſubjects in an expenſive war with the king of Denmark, on account of claims conſidered by many as ill-founded and chimerical. Peter, as duke of Holſtein, formed pretenſions to that duchy, although it had been ceded by a treaty in 1732: and he had no ſooner concluded the peace with the king of Pruſſia, than he ordered an army to march into Holſtein, which he propoſed to command in perſon.

With reſpect to the interior adminiſtration of affairs, the emperor turned his attention to reform his kingdom: and envy muſt allow, that, notwithſtanding the precipitancy and imprudence

prudence with which he acted, Ruſſia dates ſeveral uſeful and important alterations from his ſhort adminiſtration. Peter annulled the ſecret council or inquiſition * of ſtate; aboliſhed many prerogatives which were oppreſſive and tyrannical: he formed a plan for correcting the abuſes in the courts of judicature; and for introducing a regular and leſs corrupt ſyſtem of juriſprudence. He freed the nobles from the obligation they were under of ſerving in the army, and permitted them to travel into foreign countries; which before depended upon the arbitrary will of the ſovereign.

The emperor, during the firſt ſix weeks of his reign, propoſed ſo many beneficial regulations, and made ſo many judicious reflections upon them, that many perſons, who had formed a mean idea of his capacity, conceived themſelves miſtaken; and imagined, that, during the

* This ſtate inquiſition was invented by Alexèy Michaelovitch: it conſiſted of a ſecret committee of confidential perſons, appointed to judge criminals ſuſpected of high treaſon. Perſons of all ranks and ſexes were liable to be arreſted upon the ſlighteſt ſuſpicions, and tortured in the moſt dreadful manner. There was a catch word—Slovo i delo, "Words and deeds;" which, if any one only pronounced againſt another, was ſufficient cauſe for the latter's being immediately apprehended, and ſent to the ſecret committee.

reign

reign of Elizabeth, he had, from motives of policy, affected a deficiency of underſtanding. His ſubſequent conduct, however, fully proved, that he was ſtill the ſame weak and imprudent prince; that he had juſt ſenſe enough to adopt the ſchemes ſuggeſted by others, but did not poſſeſs abilities ſufficient to carry them into execution; that he had all the rage of reformation, without the judgment neceſſary to a reformer. The ſalutary regulations mentioned above were accompanied with others that were trifling; ſome that were detrimental; and ſeveral, which, although in themſelves uſeful and proper, were very imprudently propoſed in the commencement of a reign, on account of their total repugnance to the cuſtoms and genius of his people.

He irritated the clergy by ſecularizing the eſtates of the monaſteries, and aſſigning, in lieu thereof, ſome penſions far inferior in value to what the eccleſiaſtics poſſeſſed before this alteration; by forbidding the admiſſion of novices into convents before the age of thirty; and by ordering many painted images of ſaints to be removed from the churches. He baniſhed the archbiſhop of Novogorod, for refuſing to conſent to theſe ordinances; but finding this act of arbitrary power attended with general

general diſcontent, he was obliged to recall him. Being himſelf educated in the Lutheran church, he had embraced the Greek religion, with a view of ſucceeding to the throne; and he was no ſooner in ſecure poſſeſſion of it, than he imprudently diſplayed his public contempt of many rites and ceremonies, regarded by his ſubjects with the moſt profound reverence. He built a Lutheran chapel in the fortreſs of Oranienbaum; was preſent at the dedication; and diſtributed with his own hand books of hymns to the German ſoldiers. This circumſtance might have paſſed unnoticed, if he had not been abſent at the conſecration of a Ruſſian church in the ſame place.

He offended the army by the preference which he publicly ſhewed to his Holſtein troops; by introducing the Pruſſian diſcipline; and appointing new uniforms to ſeveral regiments. He particularly gave umbrage to the guards, accuſtomed to reſide in the capital, by ordering two regiments to march into Pomerania, where the army againſt Denmark was aſſembled.

He affronted the nobility by appointing his uncle prince George of Holſtein generaliſſimo of the forces; and by the ſuperior confidence which he placed in foreigners. He inflamed the general

general odium by the public contempt he expreſſed for the Ruſſian nation, for their religion and manners. He raiſed great diſcontents, as well by engaging in the war with Denmark; a war which ſeemed totally unconnected with the intereſts of the empire; as by his boundleſs admiration of the great Frederick, with whom Ruſſia had been ſo lately and ſo long in a ſtate of moſt violent hoſtility. During the life of Elizabeth, he expreſſed his concern to one of the foreign miniſters, that the empreſs had invited him to Ruſſia: "If," added he, "I had remained duke of Holſtein, "I ſhould now have commanded a regiment "in the Pruſſian ſervice, and have the honour "of ſerving perſonally ſo great a monarch; "an honour which I eſteem far ſuperior to "that of being great-duke." After his acceſſion, he uſed publicly to call him *maſter*. Talking with one of his favourites upon this topic, he ſaid, "You know I have been a "faithful ſervant to my *maſter*; for you re- "member that I tranſmitted to him intelli- "gence of all the ſecrets of the cabinet." And as the perſon, to whom this diſcourſe was addreſſed, ſeemed ſurprized at the aſſertion, and heſitated making any reply, "What are you "afraid of?" returned the emperor; "the old

"woman

" woman is not now alive; and ſhe cannot " ſend you into Siberia." He generally wore a Pruſſian uniform; expreſſed the utmoſt ſatisfaction at the formality of being appointed an officer in the king's ſervice; and when he ſent his miniſter to Berlin to negotiate a mutual alliance, gave him ſecret inſtructions to be careful that no perſon ſhould be promoted above him in the Pruſſian army. Upon receiving the patent which conferred upon him the rank of lieutenant-general in that ſervice; he inſtantly dreſſed himſelf in his new uniform; ordered a general diſcharge of the cannon in the fortreſs of Oranienbaum; gave a magnificent entertainment in honour of his promotion; and drank his *maſter*'s health until he became quite intoxicated.

During his ſhort reign he maintained a conſtant correſpondence with the king of Pruſſia; and always received from him the moſt ſalutary advice which the circumſtances would admit. That able monarch earneſtly diſſuaded him from the war with Denmark; but finding him obſtinately determined to engage in it, adviſed him to be firſt crowned at Moſcow with the uſual ſolemnities; and, when he marched to Holſtein, to carry in his train all the foreign miniſters, and ſuch of the Ruſſian

nobles

nobles who were ſuſpected of diſaffection. Frederick alſo cautioned him againſt alienating the lands of the monaſteries, and interfering with the dreſs of the clergy; and particularly recommended to him a due attention to his conſort. Indeed, the king, whoſe penetration is equal to his valour, foreſaw the conſequences which were likely to reſult from the emperor's imprudent conduct; and ordered his embaſſador at Peterſburgh to ſhow every mark of reſpect to the empreſs.

Had the advice of the king of Pruſſia been adopted, Peter might have avoided his unhappy deſtiny; but it was the character of that miſguided prince to purſue with unremitted obſtinacy what he had once reſolved, and to remain unconvinced by the moſt powerful arguments. Though his plans of reformation were, in many reſpects, highly ſalutary; yet the precipitancy with which he endeavoured to carry them into execution, and his impolitic defiance of popular prejudices, deſtroyed the affection of his ſubjects; fomented the intrigues of the oppoſite party; and terminated in his dethronement.

In no light, did the inconſiſtency of the emperor's character manifeſt itſelf more ſtrongly, than in his behaviour to his conſort. During the

the reign of Elizabeth, Catharine had employed her hours of leiſure in a courſe of aſſiduous ſtudy; and had particularly applied herſelf to thoſe authors who were moſt eminent for political knowledge: born with ſuperior abilities, ſhe had improved them by a conſtant habit of reflection, and had paid an unremitting attention to the cultivation of her mind. Her mild and inſinuating manners, her engaging addreſs, the graces of her perſon, her unwearied aſſiduities, and a perpetual fund of intereſting converſation, had conciliated the favour of the ſuſpicious Elizabeth, who ever treated her with complacency and affection. Even her huſband, though his general behaviour to her was contemptuous and unmannerly, occaſionally teſtified great reſpect for her ſuperior abilities, and uſually demanded her advice in every emergency. Whenever any quarrel aroſe between him and Elizabeth, Catharine was ſure to mediate between them; and Peter not unfrequently owed a favourable reception at court to her influence. After his acceſſion, though he frequently gave public marks of deep-rooted averſion; yet he would often behave to her with that deference, which the ſuperiority of her underſtanding challenged. By an unaccountable act of imprudence, he

would, in a full court, inveſt her with the exterior decorations of ſovereignty; while, in the character of a colonel, he preſented to her the officers of his regiment. At the Bleſſing of the waters, when the Ruſſian monarch appears in all the pomp of majeſty; the ceremonial part was left to the empreſs, and he mounted guard as colonel, and ſaluted her with his pike. Under all theſe circumſtances, the dignity of her deportment was ſo ſtriking, that it was impoſſible not to contraſt her behaviour with the trifling levity of her huſband's conduct; and to give the preference where it was ſo evidently due. Thus this infatuated prince, at the very time he was fully determined to divorce and impriſon his wife, imprudently diſplayed to his ſubjects her capacity for empire; and, while he proclaimed her forfeiture of his own eſteem, adopted every method to ſecure to her that of the whole nation. Meanwhile the breach between them was continually widened: he would occaſionally behave to her with the moſt brutal contumely; and once, in particular, at an entertainment he gave in honour of the king of Pruſſia, he publicly affronted her to ſuch a degree, that ſhe burſt into tears, and retired from table. Thus his inſults, no leſs than his deference, equally

equally attracted odium to himſelf, and popularity to Catharine.

It is alſo a well-known fact, that he more than once avowed an intention of arreſting both her and the great-duke, whom he propoſed to exclude from the ſucceſſion, and of marrying Elizabeth counteſs of Voronzof, his favourite miſtreſs. This alarming meaſure was ſcarcely adopted before it was immediately conveyed to Catharine, through the imprudence of the counteſs. By the ſame, or other means, as well as by the indiſcretion of Peter himſelf, the empreſs obtained early intelligence of every reſolution formed againſt her perſon. She was thus enabled to ſeize the deciſive moment of enterprize; and to ſecure her ſafety, by preventing the deſigns of her huſband.

Indeed her danger became every day more and more imminent, and the moment of her being arreſted ſeemed at hand. A brick houſe, conſiſting of eleven rooms, had, by the emperor's order, been conſtructed in the fortreſs of Schluſſelburgh *, for a perſon of very conſiderable conſequence, and with ſuch expedi-

* See the deſcription of this building in Vol. II. Book IV. Chap. VII.

tion, as to be almoſt finiſhed within ſix weeks. Peter went himſelf to Schluſſelburgh with a view to examine it; and no great depth of penetration was requiſite to perceive that it was built for the empreſs. In this important criſis a meeting of her party was held at Peterſburgh. This party was extremely ſmall, and, excepting the princeſs Daſhkof, and her particular adherents, conſiſted only of a few among the principal nobility. The moſt conſpicuous of theſe were prince Volkonſki, count Panin governor of the great-duke, and count Razomoſiki Hetman of the Ukraine. In the firſt conſultations for dethroning Peter III. it was propoſed, according to the plan of chancellor Beſtuchef, to declare the great-duke emperor, and Catharine regent during his minority; and this would have been the meaſure naturally followed in any country, wherein the order of ſucceſſion was more fixed than in Ruſſia. Nor was it but a few days before the revolution; that the inconvenience attending a minority, joined to the popularity and abilities of the empreſs, induced the inſurgents to adopt the reſolution of placing her upon the throne. At theſe meetings various plans of an inſurrection were propoſed; but it was at length unanimouſly agreed to delay their attempt

tempt until Peter's departure for Holſtein, when Catharine might ſeize the capital during his abſence, and aſcend the throne.

Although only a few perſons were engaged in this momentous enterprize; yet the deſigns of the party could not be concealed from the friends of the emperor, who earneſtly intreated him to inveſtigate the foundation of the report: but Peter, who had committed the care of the empreſs's perſon to thoſe in whom he placed the higheſt confidence, could never be prevailed upon to give the ſlighteſt credit to the rumour; and indeed he was ſo convinced of its falſehood, that any ſuggeſtions on that head always offended him. One of his confidents preſented him a memorial in writing, in which the names of ſeveral conſpirators were mentioned. "What, always the old ſtory!" ſaid the emperor; "here, take back your pa-"per; and do not trouble me any more with "ſuch idle tales." His uncle, prince George of Holſtein, was frequently heard to ſay, that he was tired with tendering remonſtrances; and that the emperor was inſenſible to the danger of his ſituation. On the very morning of the revolution, about two o'clock, an officer, who had a great ſhare in Peter's confidence, arrived at Oranienbaum, and demanded

to ſpeak with him upon an affair of the greateſt importance. Being, after ſome difficulty, admitted, he acquainted the emperor with ſeveral circumſtances, which ſeemed to indicate a conſpiracy upon the point of breaking out. But that infatuated prince was ſo far from paying the leaſt attention to the intelligence; that he ordered the officer under immediate arreſt, for preſuming to diſturb him at ſo late an hour. And yet at this very hour his dethronement was determined; which event was accelerated by a circumſtance perfectly unconnected with the intentions of the oppoſite party.

The arreſt of one of the empreſs's adherents, a lieutenant in the guards, whoſe name was Paſſec, greatly alarmed her friends, as they concluded that the emperor had penetrated their deſign; and although they ſoon diſcovered that it had been occaſioned by ſome irregularity of which he had been guilty as an officer; yet the conſternation it had ſpread among them haſtened the execution of their enterprize. Every moment was big with danger; and a diſcovery ſeemed inevitable if the inſurrection was delayed until the emperor's departure for Holſtein.

The empreſs, however, who continued at Peterhof,

Peterhof, ſhuddered at the advice to precipitate the hour of action: her reſolution at this awful criſis, when immediate deciſion was neceſſary, ſeemed for a moment to fail, and ſhe heſitated to aſſent; but her party at Peterſburgh, convinced that the leaſt delay would prove fatal, diſpatched, on the evening of the 27th of June, an empty carriage to Peterhof, the appointed ſignal for her approach to the capital. Catharine, whoſe greatneſs of mind ſoon recurred to ſupport her in this dreadful ſtate of agitation and ſuſpenſe, inſtantly eſcaped from her apartment; and, at three o'clock in the morning, having traverſed the garden alone to the place where the carriage * was waiting for her, was conveyed with all ſpeed to Peterſburgh. It had been preconcerted, that count Panin ſhould attend to the ſafety of the great-duke's perſon; that Gregory Orlof ſhould remain in the capital to win over ſome of the guards; and that count Razomoſiki ſhould prepare his regiment for

* This carriage was conducted by one of the empreſs's moſt confidential adherents, I believe by count Alexèy Orlof; but as I found it impracticable poſitively to aſcertain the perſon, I was unwilling to advance any fact, of which I was not as perfectly convinced as the intricate nature of theſe affairs would admit.

the reception of the empreſs. In conſequence of this determination; Catharine, upon her entrance into Peterſburgh, immediately repaired to the quarters of the Iſmailoffki guards. The hour was ſo early that Razomoffki, the lieutenant-colonel, was not yet arrived: an alarming circumſtance, ſufficient to have diſconcerted a perſon of leſs ſpirit; but the empreſs, having diſpatched a meſſenger to him, ſummoned before her the officers and ſoldiers. A few who had been apprized by Orlof were ready: while the greateſt part, being rouſed unexpectedly from their ſlumber, made their appearance ſcarcely half dreſſed.

The empreſs inſtantly laid before them the bad conduct of the emperor; his avowed contempt of the Ruſſians; his averſion to their cuſtoms; and his attachment to foreigners. She expoſed the dangers which awaited her own perſon, her ſon, and the principal nobility; ſhe expatiated upon the probable ſubverſion of their religion and government; and exhorted all thoſe to follow her, who were deſirous of ſaving their country, and of reſcuing her and the great-duke from certain deſtruction. Her ſpeech, occaſionally interrupted with ſighs and tears, was ſhort and pathetic; and, further enforced by the graces of her perſon;

perſon, made an inſtantaneous impreſſion: the greateſt part of the ſoldiers anſwered her with loud acclamations; a few officers, indeed, at firſt ſeemed to heſitate; but the arrival of Razomofſki quieted their apprehenſions; and the whole regiment offered to ſacrifice their lives in her cauſe. Catharine now proceeded to the church of the Virgin Mary of Caſan; being joined in her way by various bodies of guards, and by many of the principal nobility. Service being performed by the archbiſhop of Novogorod; the empreſs took the accuſtomed oath to preſerve inviolate the privileges and religion of the Ruſſians; after which the nobles and people flocked in crowds to ſwear allegiance to the new ſovereign. At the concluſion of this ceremony ſhe repaired to the ſenate, the members of which body acknowledged her ſole empreſs. A report, induſtriouſly circulated, that Peter was killed by a fall from his horſe, proved very favourable to the ſucceſs of the revolution. The ſuite of the empreſs continually augmented. Two regiments of guards, who had ſcarcely quitted Peterſburgh in order to join the army in Pomerania, were immediately recalled; and as they were exaſperated againſt the emperor for having forced them to leave the capital, they repaired

repaired without delay to the ſtandard of the empreſs.

Even in thoſe governments where the pretorian bands, ſtationed in the capital, depoſe ſovereigns, or raiſe them to the throne; ſome plauſible pretence muſt be urged to render a revolution popular, and to engage the general voice to ratify the deed of the ſoldiery. When Elizabeth ſeized the reins of empire, the attachment of the nation to the memory of her father induced the public to applaud that tranſaction: and in this inſtance Peter III. had, by ſome part of his conduct, rendered himſelf ſo odious, and, by others, ſo contemptible to his ſubjects, that the firſt account of his dethronement, and of Catharine's acceſſion, announced in the following manifeſto, was received with univerſal joy.

" Catharine II. by the grace of God em-
" preſs and autocratrix of All the Ruſſias, to
" all our faithful ſubjects, &c.

" All the true ſons of Ruſſia have clearly
" ſeen the danger to which the whole Ruſſian
" empire has been expoſed. Firſt, the foun-
" dation of our orthodox Greek religion has
" been ſhaken, and its tradition expoſed to
" total ruin, ſo that it was to be feared that
" the faith, which has been eſtabliſhed in

" Ruſſia

" Ruſſia from the earlieſt times, would be en-
" tirely changed, and a foreign religion intro-
" duced. In the ſecond place, the glory
" which Ruſſia had acquired at the expence
" of ſo much blood, and which was carried
" to the greateſt height by her victorious
" arms, has been trampled under foot by the
" peace lately concluded with its greateſt ene-
" my. And, laſtly, the domeſtic regulations,
" which are the baſis of the country's welfare,
" have been totally overturned.

" For theſe cauſes, overcome by the immi-
" nent dangers with which our faithful ſub-
" jects were threatened, and ſeeing how ſincere
" and expreſs their deſires were on this head;
" we, putting our truſt in the Almighty and
" his divine juſtice, have aſcended the impe-
" rial throne of All the Ruſſias; and have re-
" ceived a ſolemn oath of fidelity from all our
" faithful ſubjects.

" Peterſburgh, June 28, O. S. 1762."

All the adherents of the emperor were arreſted; among the reſt prince George of Holſtein, who had come to Peterſburgh on the 26th, under pretence of making preparations for the emperor's departure; but, in reality, to watch the oppoſite party. It was he who had given orders to arreſt Paſſec; and, by thus

thus alarming the inſurgents, had been the innocent cauſe of haſtening the revolution, which put a period to the reign of Peter III. Not the leaſt oppoſition was made from any quarter to the proceedings of the empreſs; and, notwithſtanding the ſtreets of Peterſburgh were filled with ſoldiers, who are generally tumultuous and ungovernable in ſuch dreadful periods; yet the greateſt order and diſcipline were preſerved, and no injury was offered to any individuals *.

At ſix in the evening the empreſs, habited like a man in the uniform of the guards, with

* Several Engliſh merchants had quitted their houſes before they were apprized of the revolution; but they found no difficulty in returning through the ſoldiers poſted in different parts of the town. One gentleman in particular informed me, that he went about ſix in the morning to the Cuſtom-houſe, and was ſurpriſed to find no one there. After ſtaying ſome time, he returned home; and, in his way over the bridge of the Neva, he met a friend, who aſked him what was the matter, for every thing appeared in confuſion. He had ſcarcely finiſhed theſe words, when about 300 horſemen, with drawn ſwords in their hands, galloped acroſs the bridge. A prieſt traverſing the bridge at the ſame time in a carriage, the two Engliſhmen ſtood by the ſide of it. Some of the guards, as they paſſed by the prieſt, waved their ſwords over their heads, crying out at the ſame time, "All goes well—vivat Catharine II." And this was the firſt intelligence theſe merchants received of the revolution.

a branch

a branch of oak in her hat, a drawn ſword in her hand, and mounted upon a grey ſteed, marched towards Peterhof, accompanied by the princeſs Daſhkof, the Hetman Razomofſki, the Orlofs, and her principal adherents, at the head of 10,000 troops.

About eight miles from the capital, Catharine entered a public-houſe called Kraſnoi-Cabak; and employed herſelf for ſome time in tearing and burning a large quantity of papers. She then flung herſelf in her clothes upon an ordinary bed; ſlept about an hour and a half; was on horſeback by break of day; and proceeded about four miles further, to the convent of St. Sergius at Strelna; into which ſhe retired while the troops encamped around. About eight o'clock general Iſmailof arrived at Strelna with a meſſage from the emperor; whoſe ſituation was now become truly critical. But it is neceſſary to lay before our reader the train of circumſtances, which had reduced a ſovereign of ſuch unlimited authority to ſo abject a ſtate.

While the revolution was carrying on at Peterſburgh, Peter remained at Oranienbaum in thoughtleſs ſecurity. He had paſſed the evening which preceded the revolution in the fortreſs, in company with a few choſen friends,

with

with whom he indulged, as uſual, in the pleaſures of the table; and, having puſhed them to exceſs, retired late to reſt, nearly intoxicated. In the morning he dreſſed himſelf in his Pruſſian uniform, and ſet out about eleven for Peterhof, in order to celebrate the feaſt of the apoſtles St. Peter and St. Paul, expecting to meet the empreſs at dinner, and intending *, as it is reported, to put her under an arreſt. He was accompanied by Elizabeth Vorontzof, her uncle count Vorontzof, his favourite Godovitz, marſhal Munic, and many of the nobility of both ſexes, who formed his court. He had not proceeded far, before he was met by a nobleman of his party, who had found means to eſcape from Peterſburgh. This perſon immediately ſtopped the carriage, and acquainted the emperor that he wiſhed to ſpeak with him in private. Peter, however, ordered his attendants to proceed, adding, "Why are you "in ſuch a hurry? turn back to Peterhof,

* If Peter really, as it is ſaid, intended to arreſt the empreſs, his former conduct is in ſome meaſure accounted for. He thought that her party was of no conſequence, and accordingly diſbelieved, or pretended to diſbelieve, all the reports of the conſpiracy, thinking to cruſh it at once by ſecuring her perſon. He put implicit confidence in the nobles whom he placed about the empreſs; and theſe very perſons were the firſt to betray him.

" and there you will have time enough to " ſpeak to me." The other repeating his ſolicitations; the emperor at length alighted from his carriage, and was informed of the revolution at Peterſburgh. Yet even now his obſtinacy and his infatuation were ſo great, that he for a long time ſuſpected the truth of the intelligence; but, when an enumeration of particular circumſtances had at length awakened him to a ſenſe of his danger; he teſtified the ſtrongeſt ſymptoms of amazement and horror, and was reduced almoſt to a ſtate of ſtupefaction. Recovering at length from this paroxyſm of deſpair, he diſpatched an adjutant to Oranienbaum, with orders for the garriſon to follow him immediately to Peterhof. Upon his arrival, he found that the empreſs was departed, and could obtain no information of her proceedings from any perſon of her court. Marſhal Munic adviſed him to put himſelf at the head of his Holſtein troops, and to march without delay to the capital: " I will go be- " fore you," ſaid that gallant veteran, " and " your majeſty's perſon ſhall not be touched " but through mine." Had this advice been followed, it would have been attended with a glorious, and perhaps a ſucceſsful event. The Holſtein troops, though ſcarcely amounting to a thou-

a thouſand, were zealouſly attached to Peter; and Munic was worth a regiment: the courage of the emperor, however, deſerted him in this emergency; he continued uncertain what meaſures he ſhould adopt; fluctuated between hope and fear; formed new reſolutions one moment, and renounced them the next.

His own agitation was ſtill further increaſed by the behaviour of the principal perſons, who had accompanied him from Oranienbaum, or whom he found at Peterhof. The women vented ſhrieks, and hung about the emperor in agonies of the deepeſt diſtreſs: every one clamorouſly offered advice; but the uproar was ſo great, that the advice could ſcarcely be heard, and if heard was not attended to, becauſe it was repeatedly changed. Several of the empreſs's party were preſent, and artfully fomented the general confuſion: under the ſpecious appearance of affection and zeal, they alarmed the fears of the emperor, and objected to every vigorous meaſure as inadmiſſible and dangerous. Under theſe circumſtances Peter, perplexed by ſuch diſcordant or treacherous advice, was ſoftened into cowardice by the tears of the women, and remained the whole day in a ſtate nearly bordering on diſtraction. Every moment brought him freſh cauſe of terror

terror and diſmay. He was ſucceſſively informed, that the empreſs had received the oath of allegiance from perſons of all ranks; that ſhe was miſtreſs of the capital, and was advancing towards him at the head of 10,000 troops. Diſheartened by this intelligence, he diſpatched repeated meſſengers to his conſort, with propoſals of accommodation; and, as not one of them came back, he at length determined to take refuge in Cronſtadt *; a meaſure, which, if he had earlier embraced, might probably have given a favourable turn to his affairs.

Soon after his firſt arrival at Peterhof, he had diſpatched general Devier and prince Baratinſki to Cronſtadt, to reconnoitre the place: the general was admitted without difficulty; and prince Baratinſki returned to Peterhof with the account that no news of the revolution had reached Cronſtadt; that Devier was preparing for his immediate reception; that his majeſty would find there an aſylum, where the empreſs's troops could not penetrate; and from whence he might, in caſe of extreme

* A town upon a ſmall iſland in the Gulf of Finland, where the Ruſſian navy is ſtationed. See its deſcription in the chapter on the Ruſſian navy.

neceſſity, eſcape by ſea to his dominions in Holſtein. In conſequence of this repreſentation, the emperor ordered the Holſtein troops, who were upon their march to Peterhof, to return to Oranienbaum; but, by an unaccountable fatality, he protracted his departure till near midnight. Upon his arrival at the harbour, to his inexpreſſible ſurprize and aſtoniſhment, the imperial boat at firſt was refuſed admittance by the centinels, who objected to the lateneſs of the hour; and when it was repreſented to them that the emperor was on board, they ſtill perſiſted in their refuſal, and threatened to fire from the batteries if the veſſel did not inſtantly retire.

This reception, ſo different from what he had expected, was occaſioned by the following circumſtances. General Devier, upon his arrival at Cronſtadt, took the command of the fortreſs: perceiving that the garriſon had no knowledge of the revolution, he was unwilling to give any alarm, by ſpreading the report, and, as he ſhortly expected the emperor, thought it more adviſable to wait for his appearance before he made any attempts to ſecure the fidelity of the garriſon, or iſſued any orders hoſtile to the party of the empreſs. During this interval, admiral Taliezin came to

Cronſtadt: he had been diſpatched from Peterſburgh by the empreſs, who had forgotten, in the firſt hurry of the revolution, to ſecure that important fortreſs; and was now ſent, if it ſhould not prove too late *, for that purpoſe. He was admitted into the place without oppoſition: ſoon perceiving the ſituation of affairs, he inſtantly commanded the arreſt of general Devier, which was as inſtantly obeyed; the marines and ſailors being more inclined to execute the orders of an admiral than thoſe of a general. Having ſecured the general's perſon, he announced to the garriſon the revolution at Peterſburgh: he acquainted them that the emperor was depoſed; that the army and

* Conſidering the great importance of Cronſtadt, the neglect of ſecuring it ſeems hardly credible; but I was informed from very good authority, that ſo late as ten in the morning no ſtep had been taken at Peterſburgh towards getting poſſeſſion of that fortreſs. About that time a private perſon mentioned it by chance to one of the principal inſurgents, who, without delay, acquainted the empreſs. The latter, conſcious of its great importance, immediately diſpatched admiral Taliezin. It muſt have been paſt eleven before he could have ſet off from Peterſburgh: and, as he went by water, the diſtance being twenty miles, it muſt have been paſt three before he arrived at Cronſtadt. The diſtance from Peterhof to the ſame place being only ſix miles, the emperor might have arrived there long before Taliezin.

ſenate had declared for Catharine; and that all oppoſition muſt be fruitleſs and dangerous. Theſe arguments, joined to a large quantity of ſpirituous liquors, produced the deſired effect; and Catharine was proclaimed ſole empreſs. Thus a place of ſo much importance as to have delayed, if not prevented, the final ſucceſs of the inſurrection, was ſeized by admiral Taliezin, without the leaſt oppoſition; and Peter was denied admittance.

Upon this diſappointment, his only remaining reſource was inſtantly to crowd ſail for the Gulf of Bothnia, and to ſeek an aſylum in Sweden; from whence he might eaſily penetrate to his army in Pomerania, or to his dominions in Holſtein. But it was the fate of that monarch to act no deciſive part in this important criſis: flattering himſelf with the hopes of ſtill bringing about a reconciliation with the empreſs, and prevailed upon by the cries and entreaties of the women who were on board, he returned to Oranienbaum, where he arrived about four in the morning. When Peter quitted that palace on the preceding morning he was dreſſed in his Pruſſian regimentals. Upon his return he was in his Ruſſian uniform: he now ſaw his error in deſpiſing the prejudices of his ſubjects, but it was too late.

Little

Little circumſtances of this kind are not unworthy of the hiſtorian's notice; as great events frequently turn upon them, and they often diſcover the true character of the principal perſonages concerned in the ſcene.

Upon his return to Oranienbaum, he immediately retired alone, and in great agitation, to his houſe in the fortreſs, leaving marſhal Munic and the reſt of the court in the palace. About ten he again made his appearance in a more calm and compoſed ſtate of mind. The Holſtein guards no ſooner beheld their royal maſter, than they all * crowded round him; ſome were ſtruggling to kiſs his hand, others hung about his perſon; many knelt down; ſome even proſtrated themſelves before him; all ſhedding tears of affection, and in terms of the ſtrongeſt attachment conjured him to lead them againſt the empreſs, offering to ſtand by him to the laſt extremity, and to ſacrifice their lives in his defence. Peter was ſo much animated by theſe affecting aſſurances of zeal and fidelity,

* I had theſe circumſtances from a perſon who was preſent; he had tears in his eyes while he deſcribed the animated behaviour of the Holſtein troops. He ſaid he never ſaw ſo affecting a ſcene.

that he caught their ſpirit for a moment, and cried out, " To arms ! " but the tears of the women, his own irreſolution, and the reflection that reſiſtance would be ineffectual, ſoon damped this momentary fit of courage, and he again reconciled himſelf to ſubmiſſion.

Early in the morning he had diſpatched major-general Iſmailof, in whom he repoſed implicit confidence, to the empreſs, with a letter, offering to reſign his crown ; upon condition that he ſhould be permitted to retire into Holſtein, with Elizabeth Vorontzof, and his favourite Godovitch. Iſmailof found the empreſs in the convent of Strelna, and was immediately admitted to her preſence. The great policy on the ſide of Catharine now conſiſted in obtaining poſſeſſion of the emperor's perſon without effuſion of blood ; it was her object, therefore, to amuſe him, without driving him to deſperate meaſures ; for ſhe well knew it was yet in his power to head his Holſtein troops, and to defend his life to the laſt extremity ; or he might ſtill be able to make his eſcape, and involve the empire in all the horrors of a long civil war. The judicious manner in which ſhe conducted

this

this delicate affair, ſhews her no leſs able in the arts of negociation, than in the ſpirit of enterprize.

She calmly repreſented to Iſmailof the madneſs of any attempt to oppoſe her, now in full poſſeſſion of ſovereign authority: ſhe pointed to her troops, who were poſted in large bodies upon the adjacent grounds; adding, that Peter's reſiſtance would only draw on himſelf and his party the vengeance of an enraged army; ſhe propoſed, therefore, that the emperor ſhould himſelf repair to Peterhof, where the terms of his abdication ſhould be adjuſted. Iſmailof, now finding the tide of ſucceſs turned on the ſide of the empreſs, and perceiving the clergy, the army, and the principal nobles, engaged in her cauſe, was convinced that nothing was left to Peter but ſubmiſſion. Seduced by the inſinuating eloquence and engaging addreſs of the empreſs, he undertook to perſuade his unhappy maſter, by immediate ſubmiſſion, to ſave an effuſion of blood, which could be productive of no effectual advantage to his cauſe. With this view he returned to Oranienbaum between ten and eleven, and found the emperor in the palace with Munic, Elizabeth Vorontzof, Godovitch, and others, anxiouſly ex-

pecting his arrival. Having retired into another apartment, the reſult of their conference was, that in leſs than an hour the emperor, with Elizabeth Vorontzof, Godovitch, and Iſmailof, entered the carriage, in which the latter had returned to Oranienbaum. Peter quitted that palace without a ſingle guard or attendant; but he had ſcarcely proceeded a mile, before a corps of Huſſars, of the empreſs's party, ſurrounded the carriage, and accompanied it to Peterhof, where he arrived about half paſt twelve. He was immediately ſeparated from his companions. The empreſs declined a perſonal conference; but ſent count Panin, who was admitted alone. What paſſed during this awful interview between that nobleman and his depoſed ſovereign, is not, nor probably ever will be, diſcloſed to the public; but nothing can convey a ſtronger picture of the emperor's weakneſs and puſillanimity, than the following abdication in form, which was the reſult of their converſation *.

* I have ſufficient reaſon to believe that this abdication was made at Peterhof: if, however, as ſome perſons with leſs probability have aſſerted, he ſigned it at Oranienbaum before he was in the hands of his enemies, his puſillanimity admits of no palliation.

" During

"During the ſhort period which I have "reigned over the Ruſſian empire, I have "found, from experience, that my abilities are "inſufficient to ſupport ſo great a burden; "and that I am not capable of directing the "Ruſſian empire in any way, and much leſs "with a deſpotic power. I alſo acknow-"ledge that I have been the cauſe of all the "interior troubles, which, had they conti-"nued much longer, would have overturned "the empire, and have covered me with eter-"nal diſgrace. Having ſeriouſly weighed theſe "circumſtances, I declare, without conſtraint, "and in the moſt ſolemn manner, to the "Ruſſian empire, and to the whole world, "that I for ever renounce the government of "the ſaid empire, never deſiring hereafter to "reign therein, either as an abſolute ſove-"reign, or under any other form of govern-"ment. I declare alſo, that I will never en-"deavour to reaſſume the government. As a "pledge of this, I ſwear ſincerely before God, "and all the world, to this preſent renuncia-"tion, written and ſigned with my own hand.

"PETER.

"June 29, O. S. 1762."

Having

Having ſigned this abdication, he was conveyed in the evening a priſoner to Robſcha, a ſmall imperial palace twenty miles from Peterhof; and the empreſs returned about the ſame time to Peterſburgh. About ſeven ſhe made her triumphant entry on horſeback, amidſt continued huzzas; the ſtreets were filled with a prodigious concourſe of people, who were drawn up in lines, and kiſſed her hands, which ſhe held out to them as ſhe paſſed along. A great number of prieſts were aſſembled upon this occaſion about the avenues to the palace: as ſhe rode through their ranks, ſhe ſtooped down to ſalute the cheeks of the principal clergy, while they were kiſſing her hand; a mode of ſalutation in Ruſſia, expreſſive of the higheſt deference.

The firſt hurry of the revolution was no ſooner paſt; and the ſpirit of revolt had ſcarce time to ſubſide, before many repented of having deſerted their ſovereign. The populace, always prone to change, began to pity their dethroned monarch; and loſt ſight of his defects in the contemplation of his calamity: they regarded him no longer in the light of a miſguided ruler, but only as an unfortunate prince, driven from the height of power to the moſt abject ſtate, and ſubject to the horrors of

of perpetual impriſonment. Peter, notwithſtanding his violence and incapacity, poſſeſſed ſeveral qualifications of a popular nature; and was greatly beloved by thoſe who had acceſs to his perſon. During the empreſs's march to Peterhof, ſeveral private ſoldiers manifeſted ſtrong ſymptoms of diſſatisfaction; ſome openly murmured at being led againſt their ſovereign; and it has ſince been known, that had Peter, upon the firſt news of the revolution, made his appearance in perſon, many of the troops would have deſerted to his ſtandard. This ſpirit of diſcontent was obſerved, and ſecretly fomented by the partizans of the emperor; the tide of popularity was even turning in his favour, and a new riſing was hourly expected: at this criſis Peter's deceaſe delivered Ruſſia from the impending horrors of a civil war. This event happened at Robſcha on the 6th of July, O. S. on the ſeventh day of his confinement, and in the 34th year of his age. His body was brought to the convent of St. Alexander Nevſki at Peterſburgh, and there laid in ſtate; where perſons of all ranks were admitted, according to the cuſtom of Ruſſia, to kiſs the hand of the deceaſed. His remains were then buried in the church of the convent; and the place of the

ſepulchre

ſepulchre was diſtinguiſhed with neither tomb nor inſcription.

The death of Peter was not followed by any of thoſe tragical ſcenes, which had hitherto uniformly diſgraced the revolutions in Ruſſia: not one of the nobles were ſent into Siberia; there were no public or private executions; even the perſonal enemies of the empreſs were forgiven. Marſhal Munic had given the emperor the beſt advice; and had offered to ſupport him at the hazard of his own perſon. Catharine is ſaid to have mildly inquired the motives, which had incited in him ſuch an active ſpirit of oppoſition to her intereſts. "I was at that period," replied Munic, with a ſpirit which twenty years impriſonment could not ſubdue, "engaged by the ſtrongeſt "ties of duty and gratitude to exert myſelf in "behalf of my late maſter: your majeſty is "now my ſovereign, and will experience the "ſame fidelity." The empreſs, ſtruck with the magnanimity of his anſwer, with equal greatneſs of mind repoſed in him the moſt unbounded confidence, which was juſtified by his ſubſequent conduct. As ſoon as the danger of a new inſurrection was diſpelled, count Vorontzof was releaſed from priſon, and afterwards employed. Elizabeth Vorontzof experienced

dienced from the empreſs no expreſſion of either jealouſy or reſentment; her perſon was untouched, and ſhe even retained, undiminiſhed, all the fruits of Peter's bounty. Catharine, with a magnanimity peculiar to her character, forgave the indignities which ſhe had received at her ſuggeſtion, and even her preſumption in aſpiring to a participation of the crown: ſhe was permitted to eſpouſe a private perſon; and ſtill remains at Peterſburgh, a living monument of the empreſs's unparalleled lenity. Godovitch, the emperor's favourite, and who was particularly obnoxious to the empreſs, was allowed to retire to his native country; and the Holſtein guards, who had offered, nay, even importuned the emperor to conduct them againſt his conſort, were not treated with the leaſt degree of ſeverity: they who choſe to inliſt were incorporated in the different regiments; and the others withdrew themſelves unmoleſted from Ruſſia. Prince George of Holſtein, uncle to Peter, and who was not unacquainted with the deſign of arreſting the empreſs, was detained a priſoner in his own palace during the progreſs of the revolution; but that event had no ſooner taken place, than he was promoted to the rank of field-marſhal, and appointed adminiſtrator

miniſtrator of Holſtein during the minority of the great-duke.

Catharine was in the 34th year of her age when ſhe aſcended the throne; and the ſucceſs of this revolution was no leſs owing to her own perſonal ſpirit and abilities, than to the zeal of her party and the popularity of her cauſe.

CHAP.

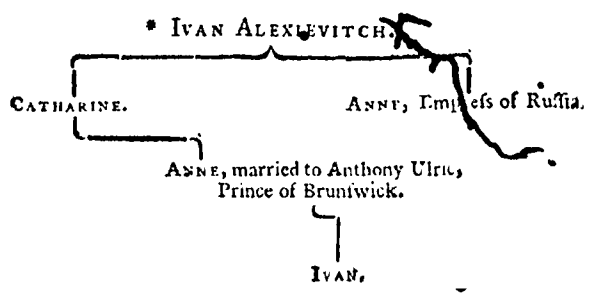
CHAP. II.

Family and birth of Ivan.—*Appointed great-duke of* Ruſſia.—*Declared emperor upon the death of* Anne.—*Depoſed by* Elizabeth.—*Impriſoned at* Riga, Dunamund, Oranienburgh, *and laſtly at* Schluſſelburgh.—*Deſcription of his apartment.*—*Method of life.*—*Intellects.*—*Ferocity*, &c.—*Viſited by* Peter III.—*Account of that interview.*—*Removed to* Kexholm.—*Brought back to* Schluſſelburgh.—*Attempt of* Mirovitch *in his favour.*—*Death of* Ivan.—*Trial and execution of* Mirovitch.—*Puniſhment of his accomplices.*—*Suſpicion of a colluſion between the court and* Mirovitch.—*Proofs of thoſe ſuſpicions.*

ſuſpicions.—Refuted.—Account of Ivan's *parents and family.—Biographical anecdotes of count* Munic.

IVAN, the unfortunate ſubject of the preſent narrative, was lineally deſcended, on the female ſide, from the tzar Ivan Alexievitch, elder brother of Peter the Great *; and was ſon of Anne of Mecklenburgh, and of Anthony Ulric prince of Brunſwick: he was born on the 4th of Auguſt, 1740, created great-duke by his aunt the empreſs Anne; and, at her demiſe, on the 28th of October, in the ſame year, ſucceeded to the throne, from which he was depoſed by Elizabeth on the 6th of December, 1741.

The ſoldiers, who were ſent to arreſt the young emperor, were ordered to ſteal ſoftly into his apartments; and, if he was aſleep,



See Geneal. Table of the Houſe of Romanof, in Vol. II. Book III. at the end of Chap. III.

not

not to diſturb him. Finding him ſlumbering by the ſide of his nurſe, they ſtood round the cradle in reſpectful ſilence, at leaſt an hour before the prince opened his eyes: then all the ſoldiers, at once endeavouring to ſeize him, and diſputing who ſhould carry him, the child was terrified, and cried; they immediately deſiſted, and permitted the nurſe to approach, who covered him with a cloak, and was conveyed with him in a ſledge to the palace of Elizabeth. The latter took the child, kiſſed it, and, while it was yet in her arms, a body of ſoldiers paſſing by the palace, ſhouted, "Long live Elizabeth!" The infant, pleaſed with the acclamations, ſtretched out his little hand, and, ſmiling, tried to imitate the ſhouts of the ſoldiers; upon which Elizabeth exclaimed, "Innocent creature! thou perceiveſt not that thou art endeavouring to ſpeak againſt thyſelf *."

It is difficult to trace Ivan diſtinctly from the time of his depoſition to his impriſonment at Schluſſelburgh; but the following account ſeems the moſt probable. He and his parents were certainly firſt carried to the fortreſs of Riga, where they were confined

* Buſ. Hiſ. Mag. vol. I. p. 374.

about a year and an half: from thence they were removed to Dunamund *, and afterwards to Oranienburgh, a ſmall town in the province of Voronetz. Here they remained at leaſt two years under the care of baron Korf, who behaved to his priſoners with great humanity and indulgence. From Oranienburgh Ivan was transferred with his parents to Kolmogori; but was impriſoned there for ſeveral years ſeparately, and unknown to the reſt of his family. Buſching ſays, that when his parents were ſent to Kolmogori, Ivan, who was then in the eighth year of his age, was left at Oranienburgh; and that ſome time afterwards a certain monk contrived to releaſe him from priſon, and to convey him as far as Smolenſko, where they were ſurprized and taken †. He

* Manſtein's Memoirs, p. 315.

† Buſ. Hiſt. Mag. VI. p. 529. There is an inaccuracy in Buſching's account, probably only a falſe print, viz. that he was in the eighth year of his age when his parents were ſent to Kolmogori; for in March, 1741, the time of Anne's death, he was only ſix years and ſeven months old: and ſome time muſt be allowed for conveying his parents from Oranienburgh to Kolmogori. Buſching was informed, by baron Korf, that they were all confined together at Oranienburgh: and I was told by an Engliſh gentleman, who had been at Kolmogori, that Ivan had been there impriſoned for a ſhort time; but as I could not learn from what authority he had derived his information, I cannot venture to adopt it.

was

was alſo confined in the convent of Valdai, ſituated upon an iſland in the lake of the ſame name, which lies at a little diſtance from the high road between Peterſburgh and Moſcow. The time of his confinement in this convent, and his ſituation until his removal to Schluſſelburgh, are circumſtances which I was not able to aſcertain. But it cannot appear ſurprizing, if there ſhould be ſome obſcurity in the hiſtory of a ſtate-priſoner ſecretly confined from his earlieſt infancy.

During the laſt eight years of his life, Ivan was undoubtedly impriſoned in the fortreſs of Schluſſelburgh; whither he was firſt brought in 1756, in the ſixteenth year of his age. The ſame year he was ſecretly conveyed, by count Peter Shuvalof, grand-maſter of the artillery, to the houſe of his couſin Ivan Ivanovitch Shuvalof at Peterſburgh; where Elizabeth ſaw and ſpoke to him without making herſelf known: it is ſaid that ſhe burſt into tears at this interview. On the enſuing day the prince was re-conducted to Schluſſelburgh.

When I viſited Schluſſelburgh, I was admitted into the fortreſs, but was not ſuffered to enter the room in which he had been confined; yet as I examined one that was ſimilar,

and have converſed with ſeveral perſons who have ſeen it, I am able to give the following deſcription of it. It is ſituated towards the fartheſt extremity of the corridore, deſcribed on a former occaſion *. It is about 25 feet ſquare, and vaulted: the walls are of bare ſtone, and the floor is of brick. The window was not cloſed, like thoſe of the adjacent cells, but glazed: and the glaſs was covered with a kind of plaiſter, which, while it admitted the light, could not be ſeen through. There was no other furniture than a truckle-bed, a table, and ſome chairs. In this diſmal apartment he was immured during the ſpace of eight years, excepting when he was occaſionally conducted to the interior fortreſs, which communicated at top with the air; but in the enjoyment of which the apprehenſions of his eſcape rendered it impolitic to gratify him, as often as humanity could have wiſhed.

With reſpect to his intellects, as he had been impriſoned from the ſecond year of his age, his ideas of courſe were very few, and his knowledge exceedingly limited: and, though not abſolutely an idiot, he diſcovered occaſional ſymptoms of inſanity. He could nei-

* Vol. II. Book IV. Chap. VII.

ther

ther read nor write; he ſpoke the Ruſſian language, and knew a few German words, which he muſt have learned when almoſt a child from his parents: he was rather inarticulate in his ſpeech, and, when agitated, ſtammered exceedingly. He was not ignorant from whom he was deſcended, and that he had once been emperor. He was ſtrongly prepoſſeſſed with the hopes of regaining his liberty, and of reaſcending the throne; uſed frequently to allude to his future behaviour when that event ſhould take place; and whenever he was rouſed by paſſion, would threaten to puniſh thoſe who provoked him. He was by nature exceedingly choleric and ferocious; and would rage almoſt to madneſs whenever he was intoxicated: for ſome time he was improperly indulged in every article for his table; he was ſerved in plate, had a great variety of diſhes, and all kinds of wine. But afterwards, in order to prevent his frequent exceſſes, theſe luxuries were judiciouſly diminiſhed; though his maintenance was ſtill amply provided for by the allowance of £. 20 per month.

He would often change his dreſs twenty times in the day, and walk about his room admiring himſelf with puerile ſatisfaction. In regard to his religious opinions, he had ſome

faint knowledge of the Greek perſuaſion; and uſed frequently to pray in the moſt fervent manner. Once a year he was accuſtomed to confeſs, and receive the ſacrament according to the ceremony of that church; and often boaſted of obtaining revelations from the angel Gabriel.

He certainly knew that the empreſs Elizabeth was ſeated upon that throne from which he had been depoſed: but it does not appear that he was ever made acquainted with her death, and the ſubſequent changes. Peter III. ſoon after his acceſſion, came himſelf to Schluſſelburgh, accompanied by Godovitch, Leff Alexandrevitch Nariſhkin, Volkof, and baron Korf. In croſſing the arm of the Neva to the iſland of Schluſſelburgh, the boat which conveyed Peter and his ſuite ſtruck againſt a fragment of ſtone, and was nearly overſet. On landing, the emperor ſent one of his ſuite to the governor, with an order of admiſſion ſigned by himſelf, was immediately received within the fortreſs, and admitted into the prince's apartment. Peter for a ſhort time remained concealed, while his nobles and attendants converſed with Ivan; but he ſoon joined the company, drank a diſh of coffee, and entered into diſcourſe with the prince.

I endeavoured to collect ſome intelligence of what paſſed at this conference; but the information I received, even from perſons of good authority, was extremely various and contradictory. Inſtead, therefore, of retailing uncertain and diſcordant anecdotes, I ſhall ſubmit to the reader the following tranſlation from Buſching's account of this interview, which muſt be deemed authentic, becauſe he received it from general Korf, who was preſent during the whole time.

" In March 1762, Peter III. deſirous of " ſeeing Ivan, ſet off early in the morning " for Schluſſelburgh, accompanied by baron " Korf, Leff Alexandrievitch Nariſhkin, and " Volkof. He travelled with poſt-horſes, and " kept his intention ſo ſecret, that it was noon " before his uncle prince George of Holſtein " was made acquainted with his departure. " Peter aſſumed the character of an officer; " and, having ſhewed the governor of Schluſ- " ſelburgh an order for admiſſion, previouſly " ſigned by himſelf, went, with his attend- " ants, to the apartment of prince Ivan, " which he found a wretched place, and pro- " vided with the meaneſt furniture. His " clothes were clean and in good condition, " but extremely coarſe; and he appeared re-

" markably neat in his perſon, as well as in
" his linen. He had the appearance of an
" idiot, and ſpoke in a confuſed manner.
" One moment he affirmed that he was the
" emperor Ivan; and the next, that the ſoul
" of that emperor, who was no longer alive,
" had migrated into his body. Upon being
" aſked what induced him to imagine that
" he was an emperor; he replied, 'that he
" had learnt it from his parents and the ſol-
" diers who guarded him.' Being queſtioned
" whether he recollected his parents, he an-
" ſwered in the affirmative; and then bit-
" terly lamented, that the empreſs Elizabeth
" had always kept them, as well as himſelf, in
" a wretched ſtate; adding, he well remem-
" bered that he and they were formerly under
" the care of an officer, who was the only
" perſon that had ever ſhewed them any ten-
" derneſs or humanity: general Korf inſtantly
" demanding, whether he ſtill ſhould know
" this officer; 'I could not recollect him at
" preſent,' anſwered Ivan, 'as it is ſo long ago
" ſince I ſaw him, and I was then a child;
" but his name I have not forgotten, it is
" Korf.' The general was greatly affected.
" Ivan had heard of the great-duke * and his

* Namely, Peter and Catharine.

" wife;

" wife: and, as he repeatedly ſaid that he " hoped again to be emperor, he was aſked in " what manner he would then behave to them; " 'I would have them both executed,' return- " ed the prince. Peter was much ſhocked: " he determined, however *, to order the con- " ſtructing of a ſmall houſe in the fortreſs for " the unhappy priſoner, and propoſed to treat " him in a more humane manner. Prince " George of Holſtein even adviſed Peter to " reſtore the prince to his liberty, to ſend him " into Germany, together with his father, " Anthony Ulric, and the reſt of his family, " and to allow them a handſome penſion: but " the emperor did not ſeem to approve the ad- " vice †."

To this curious account I am enabled to add the following authentic anecdote. Peter had not been long with Ivan before he be-

* We may collect from theſe expreſſions, that Buſching ſuppoſed the houſe within the ſmall fortreſs to have been conſtructed for Ivan, and not for the empreſs; but he was probably unacquainted with the circumſtance, that Ivan was removed to Kexholm the beginning of June; this removal was perhaps occaſioned by the deſign which the emperor had formed, of confining the empreſs in the fortreſs of Schluſſelburgh.

† See Geſchichte des Ruſſiſchen Kayſers Johann des Dritten. Buſ. H. M. VI. p. 530, & ſeq.

came

came diſpirited and ſuddenly indiſpoſed; he accordingly quitted the room, and went out into the air. "I feel myſelf now," ſaid he to one of his ſuite, "very much refreſhed; I "was, indeed, exceedingly ſhocked, and very "near fainting." He then returned into the apartment, and renewed his converſation with Ivan, with whom he ſtaid near an hour.

Peter, it is ſaid, had even propoſed to releaſe Ivan from his impriſonment: and as he had conceived an idea that, perhaps, policy had induced the prince to counterfeit idiotiſm, for the purpoſe of diſcovering the truth, he ordered a confidential perſon to remain for ſome days in Ivan's apartment. This perſon ſoon perceived that his behaviour was not the effect of ſimulation, but that he at times talked wildly, as if he was really diſordered in his underſtanding: he would frequently with raptures aſſert, that the angel Gabriel appeared to him in viſions, and brought revelations from heaven. Being aſked by this perſon, why he imagined that he had once been emperor; he replied, "I was told ſo by one of "my guards, who looking ſteadfaſtly at me, "burſt ſuddenly into tears; and upon my de-"manding the reaſon, informed me, that he, "as well as the whole nation, had formerly "taken

" taken the oath of allegiance to me as em-
" peror; and he then gave me the account of
" my dethronement, and of the acceſſion of
" Elizabeth."

Peter, now fully convinced that Ivan's underſtanding was diſordered, ſoon relinquiſhed all thoughts of releaſing him; and ſoon afterwards ordered him to be ſent by water to Kexholm, a fortreſs ſituated in a ſmall iſland, where the Voxen flows into the lake of Ladoga. He was conveyed acroſs that lake in a ſmall open boat to a galliot, which lay at anchor to receive him at ſome diſtance from Schluſſelburgh. The wind being boiſterous, and the water extremely agitated, he at firſt trembled with fear; but, in a ſhort time, became compoſed, although there aroſe a violent ſtorm, which the watermen could ſcarcely weather. The waves, indeed, ran ſo high, that the boat was overſet; and the prince was not ſaved without the greateſt difficulty. In the month of Auguſt, Ivan was again removed from the fortreſs of Kexholm to that of Schluſſelburgh, by order of the empreſs Catharine, who had in this interval ſucceeded to the throne. He was conducted in a carriage, which breaking down near the village of Schluſſelburgh, he was led through the place covered

covered with a cloak, and thus ſettled again in his former habitation.

This unhappy ſtate-priſoner was detained in the ſame fortreſs until the time of his deceaſe, which happened in the morning of the 5th * of July, 1764. The plain account of this melancholy event is as follows. Two officers, a captain Vlaſief and lieutenant Tchekin, were appointed to guard Ivan, and for that purpoſe were ſtationed in his apartment. In the fortreſs was a company, conſiſting of near an hundred ſoldiers; of whom about eight or ten ſtood centinel in the corridore cloſe to the door of his room, and within the paſſage leading to it; the reſt were poſted in the guard-houſe, at the gate, and in different parts of the fortreſs, under the command of the governor. At that time the regiment of Smolenſko was quartered in the village of Schluſſelburgh; and every week an hundred men relieved the guard in the fortreſs. Vaſſili Mirovitch, an under-lieutenant in this regiment, was the perſon who, by attempting to releaſe Ivan, was the cauſe of his death. This perſon was grandſon of the rebel of the ſame name, who followed Mazeppa Hetman of the

* O. S. 16th N. S.

Coſſacs,

Coſſacs, when the latter revolted from Peter the Great, and joined Charles XII. in his ill-concerted expedition into the Ukraine. Mirovitch had applied to the empreſs to reſtore the eſtates of his grandfather, which had been confiſcated after the battle of Pultava; but having met with a poſitive refuſal, as well in this as in other applications, he formed the deſperate reſolution of delivering Ivan; in order to place that prince upon the throne which he had once filled, and to raiſe himſelf to a rank and ſtation equal to that of the firſt ſubject in the empire. But, as he was a perſon without fortune or connexions, the means he was enabled to adopt were far from being adequate to the boldneſs of the enterprize.

Having formed this daring reſolution, he, a few months before the purpoſed time of execution, communicated it at Caſan to a lieutenant in the regiment of Veliki-Luki, whoſe name was Apollon Uſhakof. Theſe two aſſociates repaired to the church of the Virgin Mary, where they took an oath of ſecrecy and fidelity upon the altar, and, mixing fanaticiſm with treaſon, invoked the Almighty to aſſiſt and ſanctify their deſigns. They alſo joined

joined in drawing up a manifeſto, which they propoſed to diſtribute as ſoon as Ivan ſhould be ſet at liberty. The execution of this enterprize was delayed until the ſummer; when it was expected that the empreſs would be abſent from the capital upon an expedition into Livonia. Soon afterwards Mirovitch joined his regiment, which was quartered at Schluſſelburgh; but his confederate Uſhakof was accidentally drowned, on the 29th of March, in his way to Smolenſko.

Mirovitch, deprived of his aſſociate, does not appear to have found any other perſon in whom he could repoſe equal confidence. He ſounded, however, a ſervant of the court, whoſe name was Tikon Caſatkin; and artfully endeavoured to infuſe, by degrees, into his mind rebellious principles, in order to make him, at a proper ſeaſon, the inſtrument of his purpoſes. But he was ſomewhat more explicit with Simeon Tchevaridſef, lieutenant in the corps of artillery; to whom he communicated, firſt, by dark and obſcure hints, and then in ſomewhat plainer terms a deſign of releaſing Ivan; and of conducting him to that corps ſtationed at Peterſburgh: but he mentioned it merely as a project, without

out fixing any preciſe time for attempting it, or naming himſelf as the perſon who would dare to undertake it.

With ſo little management, and no precaution in caſe of failure, did Mirovitch reſolve to carry his deſign into execution; but he was upon duty during a whole week in the fortreſs without finding any favourable opportunity. He had obſerved, however, and ſet a private mark on the door of Ivan's apartment, and had ſhewn it to his friend Simeon Tchevaridſef, who came from Peterſburgh to viſit him. At the cloſe of the week his turn of courſe expired; but he ſolicited and obtained, under ſome ſpecious pretence, the permiſſion of being continued upon guard on the evening of the 4th of July *. Probably he conſidered the ſoldiers, who were then upon duty, as more eaſy to be corrupted than thoſe who had juſt been relieved. It does not, however, appear that he had previouſly gained more than one common ſoldier, whoſe name was Jacob Piſkof: and it was not till about ten at night that he firſt hinted his intention to three corporals and two ſoldiers, who, though they all at firſt poſitively refuſed to join him,

* 15th, O. S.

yet,

yet, by the aſſiſtance of Piſkof, and by his own artful perſuaſions, were at length prevailed upon to favour his deſigns. But although they conſented to aſſiſt him; yet they could not be induced to act with that determined reſolution which the circumſtances required. On the contrary, they continued wavering, and were ſo ſtaggered with the danger, that they propoſed to defer the enterprize until a more convenient opportunity ſhould occur. Mirovitch at firſt artfully appeared to yield to their fears; but between one and two in the morning he ſuddenly renewed his ſolicitations; when, incapable of reſiſting his plauſible manner; the diſtribution he made among them of ſome money; the promiſe of more; the expectation of great promotion; and his authority, as commanding officer; they were precipitately hurried on to engage heartily in the project, and to ſecond his attempt.

Having thus ſecured the aſſiſtance of ſix perſons, he loſt not a moment in ſummoning about forty of the ſoldiers ſtationed in that part of the fortreſs, ſome of whom were aſleep and others upon guard; and, under pretence of an order from the empreſs, he commanded them to load their pieces with ball, and to follow him: and, before they could be at all aware

aware of his intention, he led them towards the apartment of Ivan. In his way he was met by Berednikof the governor. This officer had already retired to reſt, but being alarmed by one of the guards, had haſtily dreſſed himſelf; and accoſting Mirovitch, commanded him to declare the cauſe of the diſturbance. Mirovitch returned no anſwer; but, ſtriking him upon the forehead with the but-end of his muſket, delivered him a priſoner to ſome of his party; and with the remainder advanced to a wooden gate which guarded the paſſage leading to the prince's apartment. He demanded admittance; but meeting with a poſitive refuſal from the centinels, he ordered his followers to diſcharge their muſkets, and to force their way: they obeyed, and the centinels returned the fire. The ſoldiers, deceived by Mirovitch, had expected no oppoſition: ſurprized, therefore, and alarmed at the reſiſtance of the centinels, they retired with precipitation, notwithſtanding all the efforts of their leader, and inſiſted upon ſeeing the order of the empreſs. Mirovitch immediately read to them a paper *, which he had forged; at

* It is difficult, at this diſtance of time, to find out the contents of this paper; but it appeared, from the exami-

at the bottom of which he had counterfeited the imperial ſignature: and as it was no difficult matter to deceive ſuch ignorant men, few of whom could read; he prevailed upon them by entreaties, promiſes, and threats, inſtantly to make a ſecond attempt. During this ſhort interval, a cannon had been drawn from one of the baſtions, which Mirovitch himſelf pointed againſt the paſſage leading to the prince's apartment, when the door was ſuddenly opened, and the whole party ſuffered to enter without oppoſition.

Upon the firſt attempt of Mirovitch, Vlaſief and Tchekin had diſperſed the aſſailants by ordering the centinels to fire; but when they returned, and Mirovitch, with his cannon

nation of Mirovitch and his aſſociates, to have been obſcurely drawn up. As he aſſerted that what he read to them iſſued from the empreſs, he could not lay open his deſign of releaſing Ivan; and probably the paper contained only an order to take the prince from under the cuſtody of Vlaſief and Tchekin, who might be repreſented as betraying their truſt: this ſuppoſition is confirmed by the violent abuſe which the ſoldiers, upon their return to make the ſecond attack, threw out againſt theſe two officers. Nikita Lebedef, the next in command to Mirovitch, was the only perſon who perceived that the order was counterfeited; and, though he did not aſſiſt Mirovitch, he was afterwards puniſhed for not having diſcovered the impoſition to the miſguided ſoldiers.

pointed,

pointed, ſeemed reſolutely determined to force his way, the officers, finding no poſſibility of further reſiſtance, attacked with their drawn ſwords the unfortunate object of this conteſt, who had been awakened by the tumult, and had ſtarted out of bed. The prince, though without any weapon, and almoſt naked, yet, animated with deſpair, made a vigorous defence: he parried their repeated thruſts; and, though pierced through the hand, broke one of their ſwords, until overpowered and ſtabbed in ſeveral places, he was diſpatched by a wound in the back. The officers immediately threw open the door, and, pointing to the body of Ivan, exclaimed, "Here is your "emperor!" Mirovitch, upon beholding the dead body, ſtarted back in an agony of ſurprize; ſoon, however, recollecting himſelf, he made no other attempt; but returned with perfect compoſure to the governor Beredni-kof, and delivering up his ſword, calmly ſaid, "I am now your priſoner."

On the following day, the body of Ivan was expoſed in a ſhirt and a pair of drawers before the guard-houſe in the fortreſs; whither an immenſe concourſe of people flocked from all quarters. I was informed by a gentleman, who was preſent upon the occaſion,

that he found it impoſſible to deſcribe the animated grief which appeared in the countenances, attitudes, and expreſſions of the people at the ſight of a prince, who had once been ſeated on the throne; whoſe misfortune only, and no crime, had occaſioned his impriſonment; and whoſe wretched exiſtence had been prematurely cloſed by the hand of violence. The concourſe at laſt was ſo great as to excite apprehenſions of a tumult: the body was accordingly wrapped in a ſheep-ſkin, put into a coffin, and buried in an ancient chapel of the fortreſs, which is now demoliſhed.

According to the information I received from thoſe who had ſeen the body of Ivan, he was ſix feet in height, handſome, and athletic; he had ſmall fiery eyes, reddiſh hair and beard, and a complexion uncommonly fair, which had been rendered pallid by confinement.

The account of this wild enterprize of Mirovitch, and of Ivan's death, was forwarded to count Panin, together with ſeveral copies of the manifeſto which had been originally concerted with Uſhakof, and which were found upon Mirovitch when he ſurrendered. The manifeſto contained the moſt virulent abuſe

abuſe and dreadful imprecations againſt the empreſs, who was repreſented as an uſurper of the throne of which Ivan was the lawful ſovereign; and the copies were to have been diſtributed as ſoon as the prince ſhould be reſcued and brought to the capital. Count Panin diſpatched immediate intelligence to the empreſs in Livonia; who commanded lieutenant-general Weymar to repair without delay to Schluſſelburgh, in order to examine Mirovitch and his aſſociates; and to collect all poſſible information that might contribute to a full diſcovery of their deſigns. This information, together with the confeſſion of Mirovitch and his accomplices, was laid before a committee compoſed of five principal eccleſiaſtics, the ſenate, and of other nobles high in rank and office. Mirovitch and his abettors, being removed to Peterſburgh, were examined at different times before this committee, both ſeparately and together; and the reſult of all theſe inquiries tended to ſhow, that Mirovitch had not been inſtigated to this attempt; but that he had originally contrived the plot, and had acted throughout the whole tranſaction ſolely from himſelf.

During the courſe of the ſeveral meetings that were held on this occaſion, Mirovitch

aſtoniſhed the committee by his inſolent and undaunted behaviour: at laſt, however, he was brought in ſome meaſure to a ſenſe of his crime, by the repreſentations of the archbiſhop of Roſtof, and four nobles ſpecially deputed for that purpoſe; and being then again exhorted to confeſs if he had any other aſſociates of his guilt, he firmly replied, "As a "man devoted to die, I ſolemnly declare, that "my confeſſion contains all I know: I call "upon the Almighty to witneſs the truth of "this aſſertion, and to denounce his ſevereſt "vengeance upon me in the next world, if "I have miſrepreſented any circumſtance, or "concealed any accomplice." Being convicted of high treaſon, he was condemned to loſe his head; and the body, together with the ſcaffold upon which he was to ſuffer, were ordered to be burnt upon the ſpot. The ſentence was performed on the 26th of September, in the city of Peterſburgh. Mirovitch walked to the place of execution along the ſtreets, filled with an innumerable concourſe of people, with an unconcerned air, and a ſteady and aſſured countenance; and having mounted the ſcaffold, he caſt his eyes around him with a look of indifference; then croſſed himſelf, and without uttering a ſingle word,

word *, he laid down his head upon the block, and it was ſevered from his body at one ſtroke.

Mirovitch alone ſuffered capitally; his abettors were ſubjected to different penalties, according to the degrees of their guilt. Piſkof, who was the moſt criminal, was ſentenced to run the gauntlet twelve times through a line of a thouſand men, and his five more immediate aſſociates ten times; they were then condemned for life to hard labour and impriſonment: a ſentence ſcarcely lighter than death itſelf. It is needleſs to diſcriminate the penalties impoſed upon the others, which conſiſted chiefly in the gauntlet, in degradation, and in condemnation to ſerve in diſtant garriſons. It will be ſufficient to obſerve, that fifty-five delinquents were involved in the treaſon of Mirovitch: to theſe muſt be added Caſatkin and Tchevaridſef, who were found guilty of holding treaſonable converſations with him; and Nikita Lebedef, who was puniſhed for not having undeceived the ſoldiers, by expoſing the falſity of the imperial order which Mirovitch had forged.

* It may not be improper to remark, that Mirovitch was not gagged, as has been falſely aſſerted.

Theſe are the principal facts which I was able to collect reſpecting the life and death of Ivan; and I have endeavoured to ſtate them with perfect impartiality. The ſame regard to truth prevents me from concealing the reports which were induſtriouſly circulated, that the court not only connived at, but even encouraged the attempt of Mirovitch. The accuſation is ſtated in the following manner. Orders were previouſly given to captain Vlaſief and lieutenant Tchekin to deſtroy Ivan, if any attempt to releaſe him ſhould be likely to ſucceed; and for the purpoſe of furniſhing them with a pretence for diſpatching him, Mirovitch was privately inſtigated to form a conſpiracy in his favour. The probability of this accuſation is founded on the following proofs.

I. That in the attack of Mirovitch and his party on the guards of Ivan, not one perſon on either ſide was either killed or wounded. II. That the conduct of Mirovitch upon the failure of his project, his daring and inſolent behaviour under his trial, and his calm compoſure at the place of execution, are not, upon any other ſuppoſition, to be accounted for. III. That orders were certainly given to Vlaſief and Tchekin for putting Ivan to death; and

and that they were as certainly promoted for executing thoſe orders.

I. With reſpect to the firſt proof, we may readily allow the fact to have been very extraordinary; but by no means to be thought impoſſible on account of its ſingularity. It is a well-known circumſtance, that in the outſkirts of an army large bodies of light troops frequently approach cloſe to each other, and diſcharge their fire without effect. And if this frequently happens in the day-time; its probability is ſtill further increaſed, when we conſider that the rencounter in queſtion happened at two in the morning, and in the midſt of a thick fog. The truth of this circumſtance has been erroneouſly called in queſtion: for I was informed at Schluſſelburgh, that almoſt every morning in ſummer a fog precedes ſun-riſe, which is naturally accounted for from the very ſituation of the iſland on which the fortreſs ſtands, in a marſhy ſoil, and cloſe to the largeſt lake in Europe. Nor is it extraordinary that the centinels of Ivan, who were but few, and ſome of theſe few ſheltered in the paſſage, and others probably behind the pillars of the corridore, ſhould not be wounded by the random ſhots of the aſſailants, wavering in their reſolutions, and uncertain

certain whether to comply with, or diſobey, the orders of their leader. With reſpect to the party of Mirovitch, the whole number did not attack in a collective body; many of them continued at ſome diſtance; and they were all ſo alarmed at the unexpected return of their fire, that they inſtantly diſperſed, and probably before all the guards had diſcharged their muſkets: and as the latter conſiſted only of eight or ten; as the night was dark, and the area large; it cannot be deemed ſurpriſing that they miſſed the aſſailants. To a perſon who has been upon the ſpot, and examined the poſition of the place, theſe circumſtances and theſe ſuppoſitions are far from appearing improbable: whereas, on the other hand, if we conclude the whole to have been concerted, we muſt allow that every individual, on both ſides, was previouſly informed that the attack, as well as defence, ſhould be feigned: a caſe in itſelf impoſſible, that a deſign of ſuch importance, and the mode of accompliſhing it, ſhould be entruſted to ſo many, and thoſe of no higher rank than common ſoldiers.

II. The ſecond proof is drawn from the conduct of Mirovitch upon the death of Ivan, during his trial, and at the place of execution.

tion. In regard to his behaviour upon the death of Ivan, it is objected, that, inſtead of attempting to make any reſiſtance, he calmly, and of his own accord, delivered himſelf a priſoner. To this it may be anſwered, that he had founded all his hopes of ſucceſs upon obtaining poſſeſſion of Ivan's perſon; the moment, therefore, that thoſe hopes were fruſtrated by the death of that prince, his fate was decided. He had great difficulty in perſuading the ſoldiers to make the ſecond attack, when the prince was alive; what aſſiſtance, therefore, could be expected from them when they knew that he was dead? They had no other object than to releaſe Ivan, and had even been unwillingly hurried on to favour that attempt. Could Mirovitch ſuppoſe that they would deſperately aſſiſt him in attacking the officers, and in forcing an eſcape? And indeed whither could he eſcape? He could neither conceal himſelf in the fortreſs; nor could he eaſily withdraw himſelf from the iſland. He had, therefore, no other alternative than ſelf-deſtruction, or an immediate ſurrender. His preference of the latter may be attributed to the impulſe of the moment, or rather perhaps to the cool intrepidity of his character. He had ventured his life and

fortunes

fortunes upon one riſk of extreme hazard; and when that failed him, he knew and was prepared for the worſt, and ſullenly reſigned himſelf to his fate: but after all, it is too much to expect that we ſhould juſtify the conduct of an enthuſiaſt, in the moment of diſappointment and deſpair, upon the principles of ſound judgment and deliberate reaſon *.

His

* I cannot in this place avoid citing a paſſage from an anonymous author, who ſuppoſes a colluſion between Mirovitch and the court: "Après un ſi noble exploit Meſſrs. "Wlaſief & Tchekin jettent le corps du prince aſſaſſiné "devant la porte; et par un effet miraculeux Mirovitz, "*qui ne connoiſſoit alors le prince Ivan que de nom, le reconnoit dans ce moment pour ſon empereur non obſtant le brouillard épais.*" A ſtrange objection! as if, becauſe Mirovitch was not acquainted with the perſon of Ivan, he ſhould not know, or at leaſt believe, the dead body to be his, when the guards cried out, "Here is your emperor!" Could he conceive they had murthered an innocent perſon, merely with the view of deluding him? And were not the doors of the apartment thrown open, and he at full liberty to ſearch and ſatisfy himſelf? Another paſſage from the ſame author muſt be mentioned for its glaring falſity: "Le coup inattendu le frappa tellement, qu'il te-"moigna ſon repentir et ſon affliction à toute ſa troupe, ſe "rendit priſonnier; et *de tout ſa garde qui étoit complice du* "*meurtre, lui ſeul qui en eſt le chef eſt arrêté, et lui ſeul* "*en eſt puni.*" The reader will be able to judge whether the ſoldiers who aſſiſted Mirovitch were equally guilty with

His daring inſolence before the committee, and his calm indifference at the place of execution, are, it is alledged, not to be accounted for, but upon the ſuppoſition that he affected the former behaviour, in order to prevent the idea of any colluſion; and the latter, becauſe he was ſecure of a pardon: it is ſurmiſed, therefore, that he was only to lay down his head upon the block, and that a reprieve was to be ready at the place of execution. To this I briefly anſwer, that it is not to be conceived by what promiſes a man could poſſibly be perſuaded to hazard himſelf in ſo critical a ſtate. What could induce him to riſk his life under a momentary ſtroke, to be given or ſuſpended by a power extremely intereſted in his deſtruction? for the dead

with him; and whether he was the *only* perſon arreſted, and the *only* perſon puniſhed. The author of the above malevolent paragragh did not know, perhaps, that, by the laws of Ruſſia, capital penalties are ſeldom inflicted; or that the accomplices of Mirovitch were ſeverely puniſhed. We may remind him, that even in the rebellion of Pugatchef, that impoſtor and four of his principal confederates were the only perſons who ſuffered death: the other rebels were knooted and condemned to hard labour and impriſonment. The cauſe muſt be very bad indeed, when its defenders have recourſe to ſuch frivolous objections, and ſuch glaring falſehoods. See Pieces concernant la Mort du Prince Ivan.

betray

betray nothing; and his death would preclude all diſcovery of ſo infamous a tranſaction: and theſe ſtrange ſuppoſitions are advanced, as if no rebel was ever undaunted during trial; nor any malefactor ever met death with firmneſs and even indifference.

III. With reſpect to the third proof, which reſts upon the previous orders to the officers Vlaſief and Tchekin, their execution of thoſe orders, and their promotion in conſequence, I clearly and deciſively reply, that ſuch orders were not peculiar to the guards of Ivan; they are always given to thoſe who are appointed to ſecure ſtate-priſoners of any conſequence in Ruſſia; they are to be juſtified generally upon reaſons of ſtate; nor were they invented upon the preſent occaſion. During the whole reign of Elizabeth, this precaution had always been taken; and in the preſent inſtance, the orders were renewed, whenever the perſons entruſted with the care of Ivan were changed.

But, in ſupport of this third proof, it is further alledged, that the officers were too precipitate in diſpatching the prince: they might have conveyed him to ſome place of greater ſecurity, when the conſpirators had been repulſed in their firſt onſet. But whither could they convey him? they could not

conceal him in the fortreſs, or remove him from the iſland. There could be no apartment more ſecure than that in which he was confined; and even if they had attempted to remove him, the ſhortneſs of the interval between the firſt and ſecond aſſault would have prevented them. The aſſailants inſtantly returned as ſoon as the forged order was read to them, and they returned with a loaded cannon. It follows, therefore, that the officers and centinels found themſelves incapable of oppoſition, and that Ivan muſt have fallen into the hands of Mirovitch: they had, therefore, no other alternative than to put him to death. Dreadful alternative indeed! but which they were obliged to embrace, for the preſervation of the public tranquillity: if they performed their duty in this emergency; the approbation of their ſovereign, and their ſubſequent promotion, were the natural, and, I even add, the juſt conſequences.

But ſurely the whole conduct of Mirovitch, his aſſociation with Uſhakof, their oath of fidelity, the violent manifeſto againſt the empreſs, together with his treaſonable intercourſe with Caſatkin and Tchevaridſef, are evident proofs that his deſign was not feigned; that it originated from himſelf; and had been planned

planned ſome time before an opportunity offered of attempting it. To ſuppoſe that the empreſs had formed the project of deſtroying Ivan; that ſhe employed Mirovitch as the inſtrument of that project; that ſhe ſecretly promiſed him his pardon; that ſhe ſuffered him to go to the place of execution fully ſecure of a reprieve; that ſhe there deceived him; that ſhe puniſhed his aſſociates, of whoſe criminality ſhe was herſelf the immediate cauſe, imply ſuch a complication of the baſeſt fraud and horrid barbarity, that we ought not to liſten to the imputation, were it founded even upon ſome degree of probable conjecture: whereas the proofs alledged amount to nothing more than mere ſurmiſes and vague conjectures; and are totally refuted by the moſt valid arguments and indiſputable teſtimony.

I cannot cloſe this hiſtory without annexing the following ſhort account of Ivan's family. His father Anthony Ulric was ſon of Ferdinand Albert, and of Antonietta Amelia, ſiſter of Charlotte Chriſtina, who eſpouſed the tzarovitch Alexèy. He was brother of Charles late duke of Brunſwick, and of that diſtinguiſhed general prince Ferdinand. Anthony Ulric was born in 1714; in 1733 was betrothed, upon his arrival at Peterſburgh, to the princeſs

princeſs Anne of Mecklenburgh, the preſumptive heireſs of the Ruſſian throne. He ſerved in the campaign againſt the Turks under general Munic, was preſent at the ſiege of Otchakof, and was a true Brunſwic for valour and ſpirit of enterprize. On the 14th of July, 1739, his nuptials with the princeſs Anne were celebrated with great magnificence. On the day of that ceremony, " * who would " have imagined that their union would one " day produce their greateſt misfortune ?" and that the prince was called into Ruſſia, not to ſhare a throne, but a priſon, with his conſort ?

The mother of Ivan, Elizabeth Catharine Chriſtina, was daughter of Charles Leopold duke of Mecklenburgh, and of Catharine Ivanofna : ſhe was born in 1718; and in 1731 invited to Peterſburgh by her aunt the empreſs Anne. Having embraced the Greek religion, ſhe was rebaptized by the name of Anne, and eſpouſed in 1739 Anthony Ulric. Soon after the birth of Ivan, ſhe was not only excluded from the throne, but even from any ſhare in the adminiſtration of affairs during her ſon's minority. This event was brought about by

* Manſtein's Memoirs, p. 248.

the intrigues of Biren, who, upon the acceſſion of Ivan, was declared regent. Having, by the aſſiſtance of count Munic, arreſted Biren, the princeſs Anne aſſumed the regency and title of great-ducheſs, and was upon the point of declaring herſelf empreſs, when Elizabeth ſeized the reins of government.

Upon that revolution this illuſtrious couple were, as I have before obſerved, ſucceſſively confined at Riga, Dunemund, and Oranienbaum: from thence they were removed to Solomonſkoi Oſtrof, an iſland in the White Sea; and, finally, to Kolmogori, a ſmall town, ſituated in an iſland of the Dvina, about 40 miles from Archangel. Anne had four children by her huſband during their joint impriſonment; and ſhe died in child-bed at Kolmogori, in March, 1746. Her body was brought to Peterſburgh, and buried in the church of the convent of St. Alexander Nevſki.

Manſtein * has well drawn the weak, capricious,

* "She was extremely capricious, paſſionate, and indolent; hating affairs, and irreſolute in trifles as well as "in affairs of the greateſt importance. During the year "of her regency ſhe governed with a great deal of mildneſs. She loved to do good, but did not know how to "do

pricious, and indeciſive character of the regent Anne; who, with a moderate degree of firmneſs

do it properly. Her favourite, Juliana de Mængden, poſſeſſed her whole confidence, and governed her manner of life juſt as ſhe pleaſed. Her miniſters and the men of parts were hardly liſtened to. In ſhort, ſhe had none of the qualities fit for governing ſo great an empire in a time of trouble and difficulty. She had always a melancholic, and rather a fretful air; which might proceed habitually from the vexations ſhe had ſuffered from the duke of Courland during the reign of the empreſs Anne. She was handſome, had a very pretty figure, with a good ſhape; and ſpoke with fluency ſeveral languages." Manſtein's Memoirs, p. 316.

Count Munic ſays of her, " Elle étoit naturellement fainéante, et ne parut jamais au cabinet; et lorſque je me preſentai le matin chez elle avec ce qui étoit expedié au cabinet, ou ce qui demandoit quelque réſolution, elle ſentoit ſon inſuffiſance, et me diſoit ſouvent: Je voudrois que mon fils fut deja en âge de regner lui-même.— Elle étoit naturellement ſalope, ſe coëffoit d'un mouchoir blanc, alloit ainſi à la meſſe et ſans jupe de baleine, et paroiſſoit de même en public et à ſa table, et après-midi pour jouer aux cartes avec un parti choiſi.

" Elle vivoit mal avec le prince ſon époux, et fit lit à part, et lorſqu'il vouloit entrer le matin chez elle, il trouvoit ordinairement les portes fermées.—Dans la belle ſaiſon elle fit mettre ſon lit à coucher au balcon du palais d'hiver du coté de la riviere, il y avoit cependant un écran pour cacher ce lit, mais du ſecond étage des maiſons voiſines du palais, on pouvoit tout découvrir." Ebauche, &c. p. 139, &c.

firmneſs and prudence, might eaſily have defeated the deſigns of Elizabeth: but the following anecdote, recorded by Buſching, will perhaps diſplay, in the ſtrongeſt light, her mild and indolent character. During her confinement in the fortreſs of Riga, the prince of Brunſwick frequently blamed her for having diſregarded the information ſhe daily received concerning the attempts of the oppoſite party: one day in particular he vehemently reproached her for rejecting his advice to arreſt Elizabeth; adding, that, had that advice been followed, ſhe and her family would not have been involved in their preſent misfortunes. "It may be ſo," returned the princeſs with great indifference; "but "I ſhall never repent of my conduct: and it "is better as it is, than to have preſerved our "ſovereignty by ſhedding a deluge of blood *."

"As to the prince her huſband," ſays Manſtein, "he "had the beſt heart and the beſt temper imaginable, with "all the intrepidity of courage that could have been wiſhed "in military affairs; but too timid, too embarraſſed, in "affairs of ſtate. He had come too young into Ruſſia, "where he had undergone a thouſand croſſes from the duke "of Courland, who did not love him, and who often treated "him very harſhly." Memoirs, p. 317.

* Buſ. Hiſt. Mag. vol. I. p. 32. Buſching had this anecdote from a favourite maid of honour who attended the regent in her confinement.

Beſides

Beſides Ivan, ſhe left four children, two ſons and as many daughters, who were confined with their father at Kolmogori.

Anthony Ulric died about 1776, in the 35th year of his impriſonment, and in the 63d of his age. He had been for a long time greatly afflicted with the gout, and for a year before his death was totally blind. Catharine II. whoſe good ſenſe raiſes her above the uſual ſuſpicions of ſtate jealouſy, has, by an unparalleled act of humanity, releaſed from their long confinement the remaining branches of this illuſtrious family.

The place of their confinement at Kolmogori was the biſhop's antient palace and garden; ſeparated on one ſide from the cathedral by a high wall, and on the other ſide ſurrounded by paliſadoes *. Within the encloſure, near the entrance, was a barrack for the ſoldiers who guarded them, commanded by a lieutenant and three inferior officers. Another guard of ſoldiers, commanded by lieutenant Karikin, was ſtationed in the epiſcopal palace, in which the illuſtrious priſoners were confined: theſe two guards were entirely ſeparate, and had no communication with each other.

* Buſching's Hiſt. Mag. V. 22. p. 418.

The governor of Archangel kept the keys of the gates, and without his permiſſion no one, not even the phyſician, if they were indiſpoſed, could venture to viſit them.—From the windows of their houſe they were able to deſcry, towards the ſouth-eaſt, a ſmall turn of the river Dvina, and towards the ſouth-weſt, the high road leading to St. Peterſburgh. They inhabited the apartments on the ground-floor, which lead by a ſmall flight of ſteps into a garden, planted with a few birch, and containing a muddy fiſh-pond, ſurrounded with an avenue of trees. In this fiſh-pond floated an old and crazy boat. They had the uſe of an old-faſhioned coach, drawn by ſix horſes, drove and attended by the ſoldiers, in which they could drive backwards and forwards along an alley about a quarter of a mile within the encloſure.

Theſe illuſtrious priſoners; whoſe birth entitled them to a better fate, ſaw no other perſons but thoſe who were allotted to wait upon them; had no other amuſement than to play at whiſt or ombre; and dared not read any other books than books of prayer in the Ruſſian language.

Godovin, governor of Archangel, under whoſe inſpection they remained ſeventeen years, treated them with great inattention, and did

not confer on them any friendly offices to ſooth the rigour of their ſituation. He ſuffered the houſe and garden to fall into decay; furniſhed them with an indifferent table; and gave no account of the money allotted for their ſupport. But in 1779 they experienced a more favourable change of circumſtances. Melgunef being diſpatched by the empreſs to divide the government of Archangel into two governments, viſited the illuſtrious priſoners at Kolmogori; and, being moved with compaſſion at their forlorn ſituation, by their advice the youngeſt princeſs Elizabeth wrote to the empreſs, in an artleſs and pathetic manner, and laid before her majeſty an account of their deplorable ſituation. Catharine, greatly affected at the peruſal, inſtantly reſolved to reſtore them to liberty, and to place them under the protection of the queen-dowager of Denmark.

By her order, Melgunef prepared every thing for their departure; and, at two o'clock in the morning, on the 27th of June, 1779, releaſed them from their priſon-houſe, and accompanied them to Archangel. On their arrival in the fortreſs of that city, he informed them of the empreſs's gracious intentions to reſtore them to liberty, and to ſend them into

Denmark. This unexpected news at firſt filled them with anxiety and apprehenſions. They miſtruſted ſome hidden danger, and expreſſed a deſire to remain at Kolmogori, under the enjoyment of more liberty than they formerly poſſeſſed. But when Melgunef aſſured them, in the ſtrongeſt terms, of the goodneſs of the empreſs; delivered to them a valuable preſent of clothes, plate, and diamonds, ſent by her imperial majeſty, and informed them, that they were going to be placed under the protection of the queen-dowager of Denmark; they were ſo affected, that they burſt into tears, and, falling upon their knees, expreſſed their warmeſt gratitude for this unexpected favour, and offered up prayers to Heaven for their kind and gracious benefactreſs.

On the 30th of June they went on board of the frigate, which was prepared for their voyage, and ſet ſail on the following night; and after a paſſage of three months, and being expoſed to a violent tempeſt, landed at Berghen, in Norway. There they embarked on board of a Daniſh veſſel, and landed at Flatſtrand, on the coaſt of Jutland. Being conveyed to Aalberg, they remained five days with the governor, count Oſten, and from thence

proceeded by eaſy journies, and fixed their reſidence at Horſens, a town of Jutland, ſituated at the extremity of a bay of the Baltic, a few miles from the frontiers of Sleſwic.

In my ſecond tour to the North, in 1784, I puſhed my travels to Horſens, from a deſire to pay my reſpects to theſe illuſtrious perſonages. On my arrival we waited upon the principal officer attendant on the Ruſſian princes, and requeſted to have the honour of being preſented to their highneſſes. We received a favourable anſwer; but when we expected that our requeſt would be complied with, we were put off with ſeveral excuſes; firſt, that one of the princes was indiſpoſed; another time, that as they could ſcarcely ſpeak any language but the Ruſſian, they were embarraſſed with ſtrangers. We did not know, until we were informed by Mr. Guldberg, whom we had the honour of ſeeing at Aarhuus, that by ſpecial orders from the court of Denmark no foreigners are permitted to be preſented to them. They were only accompanied by a Ruſſian lady, and a prieſt and his wife. From their ignorance of any language but the Ruſſian, and their inability to converſe with moſt of thoſe who were placed about them, on their firſt arrival at Horſens they appeared even

to

to regret their priſon at Kolmogori. But they were ſoon reconciled, and became quite delighted with the change in their ſituation.

They are ſtill a kind of ſtate priſoners, though, in compariſon with their former ſituation, may be ſaid to enjoy perfect liberty. They never go out without attendants, and have not yet been permitted to viſit any family in the town. The gates of their houſe or palace, as it is now called, are carefully cloſed in winter at ten, and in ſummer at eleven. They amuſe themſelves with reading, playing at billiards, cards, riding, and walking. They walk much about the town, and in the environs, and drive out in carriages: the princes frequently ride, and particularly Alexey, who is very fond of that exerciſe, and is ſaid to be expert. They not unfrequently pay viſits in the country, and dine with the neighbouring families.

The names of theſe illuſtrious deſcendants of the imperial family of Ruſſia, are, Catharine, born July 26, 1741; Peter, born March 31, 1745; Alexey, born March 7, 1746, of whom Anne died in childbed. This prince is ſince dead. Elizabeth, the youngeſt ſiſter, was a woman of high ſpirit and elegant manners. On being releaſed ſhe wrote a letter of thanks

to

to the empreſs, ſo well expreſſed, as to excite admiration how ſhe could have obtained ſufficient inſtruction during her long confinement. Her father is ſaid to have inſtructed her; but ſhe likewiſe obtained conſiderable information from ſeveral officers who were her guards, and whom ſhe conciliated by her captivating manners. On her arrival at Horſens ſhe poſſeſſed portraits of her father and mother, and had even contrived to procure a rouble of her brother Ivan, ſtruck in his ſhort reign. It is difficult to conjecture how ſhe could obtain a coin, the poſſeſſion of which was more than once puniſhed by the empreſs Elizabeth as high treaſon; and it is ſtill more difficult to imagine how ſhe could ſecrete it from the knowledge of her guards during her long impriſonment in Ruſſia. She alone, of her brothers and ſiſters, could ſpeak a little German, and ſerved as an interpreter between them and prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, who came more than once to viſit his nephews and nieces. She is reported to have died of chagrin; but, as far I could collect, her death was occaſioned by a violent fever, which was ſoon attended with a delirium, and hurried her to the grave on the ſixteenth day of her illneſs.

But though we were unſucceſsful in our attempt

attempt to be preſented, we did not however quit Horſens without ſeeing their perſons; as on the day after our arrival there was a great fair, and many people were aſſembled in the market-place, the princes frequently appeared at the windows of their palace to look at them. The princeſs ſeemed pale and thin; the princes were about the middle ſize, fair complexioned, with ſtrong features, light hair, and expreſſive eyes.

As I beheld theſe auguſt deſcendants of the tzar Ivan, I felt extreme ſatisfaction, in reflecting that they were enlarged from the precincts of a Ruſſian priſon; and admired the humanity and magnanimity of Catharine the Second, who ventured to releaſe from a long confinement of more than forty years, perſons whoſe parents had died in priſon, whoſe brother had once filled the Ruſſian throne, and cloſed his unfortunate life by the hand of violence.

Having had frequent occaſion to mention count Munic, I ſhall here throw together a few biographical anecdotes of that extraordinary man, who enjoyed the favour of five ſovereigns of Ruſſia; who attained, at one period of his life, the higheſt honours; and at another was doomed to a rigorous confinement

of

of twenty years, which he ſuſtained with an unbroken ſpirit *.

Count Burchard Chriſtopher Munic, ſon of a Daniſh officer, was born at New-Huntorf, in the county of Oldenburgh, on the 9th of May, O. S. 1683. He received an excellent education; and, in the 17th year of his age, entered into the ſervice of the Landgrave of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, who, on account of his knowledge in tactics, conferred upon him the rank of captain. He ſerved his firſt campaign in 1701, when the emperor Joſeph commanded againſt the French; and was preſent at the ſiege of Landaw. In 1705 he was employed as a major by the Landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel; and learned the art of war under the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf for his cool intrepidity in ſeveral engagements and ſieges, and particularly at the battle of Malplaquet, when, in recompence for his bravery, he was made lieutenant colonel. Being, in 1712, dangerouſly wound-

* I have chiefly extracted this account from the Life of Count Munic, by Buſching, who was intimately acquainted with him; I have been enabled to add a few anecdotes, which I obtained from unqueſtionable authority. See Lebens Geſchichte Burchard Chriſtophs von Munich. In Buſ. Hiſt. Mag. III. p. 389 to 533.

ed

ed at the battle of Denain, he was taken priſoner by the French; and ſoon after his releaſe, in the enſuing year, raiſed to the command of a regiment.

In 1716 he quitted the Heſſian, and entered the Poliſh ſervice, under Auguſtus II. and was ſoon promoted to the rank of major-general; but, in 1721, being inſulted by count Fleming, the king's favourite, he went into Ruſſia, and was received in the moſt honourable manner by Peter I. Being charged by that great monarch with the execution of ſeveral important truſts, both civil and military, he ſucceſſively filled the higheſt poſts in the army and ſtate. He was created marſhal by the empreſs Anne; and placed at the head of the war department: he obtained the command of the army againſt the Turks; and proved his military talents by his ſucceſſes in the campaigns of 1737 and 1738.

Soon after the death of the empreſs, he adviſed, planned, and executed the arreſt of Biren; and was rewarded by the regent Anne with the office of prime miniſter. But as he was diſcontented at not being appointed generaliſſimo, and as his power and ambition gave umbrage to the court, he requeſted permiſſion to reſign his employments; and was aſtoniſhed

aſtoniſhed at the readineſs with which his requeſt was granted. Inſtead of repairing to the Pruſſian court, to which he was ſtrongly invited, he imprudently remained in Ruſſia, flattering himſelf with the hopes of being reinſtated in his former dignity; and was arreſted on the 6th of December, 1741, by order of Elizabeth. The oſtenſible reaſon of his diſgrace was, that he had perſuaded the empreſs Anne to nominate Ivan her ſucceſſor; but the real cauſe, as I was informed by a perſon of veracity, who received it from count Munic himſelf, was that, by order of that empreſs, he had taken into cuſtody one of Elizabeth's favourites.

Munic was brought before a committee appointed to examine the ſtate-priſoners: being fatigued with repeated queſtions, and perceiving that his judges were determined to find him guilty, he ſaid to them, "Dictate the anſwers which you wiſh me to make, and I will ſign them." The judges immediately wrote down a confeſſion of ſeveral charges, which being ſubſcribed by Munic, his mock-trial was concluded. Being thus, without further ceremony, convicted of high treaſon, he was condemned to be quartered; but his ſentence was changed by Elizabeth to perpetual

tual impriſonment. For the ſpace of twenty years, he was confined at Pelim in Siberia, in an oſtrog, or priſon, of which, according to Manſtein, he had himſelf drawn the plan, and ordered to be conſtructed for the reception of Biren. It was an area encloſed with high paliſadoes, about 170 feet ſquare; within which was a wooden houſe, inhabited by himſelf, his wife, and a few ſervants; and a ſmall garden, which he cultivated with his own hands. He received a daily allowance of 12*s.* for the maintenance of himſelf, his wife, and domeſtics; which little pittance he increaſed by keeping cows, and ſelling part of their milk, and by occaſionally inſtructing youth in geometry and engineering. He behaved, during his long confinement, with the utmoſt reſignation, tranquillity, and even cheerfulneſs. He was accuſtomed every day at dinner to drink to his wife "a happy return to Peterſburgh." He had prayers twice a day, from eleven to twelve in the morning, and from ſix to ſeven in the evening: they were read in the German tongue by his chaplain Martens; and, after his death, which happened in 1749, the count himſelf performed the ſervice. Beſide the culture of his garden, and the hours he paſſed in giving

giving inſtruction, he found ſufficient leiſure for compoſing hymns; for tranſlating ſeveral pſalms and prayers into German verſe; and for writing a treatiſe upon the art of war: the latter he propoſed, if ever he ſhould be releaſed from his confinement, to preſent to the king of Pruſſia. In the laſt year of his impriſonment, a centinel informing againſt Munic's ſervants for ſupplying him with pens and paper, the count, in order to prevent any diſcovery, was obliged to deſtroy all his writings, the amuſement and labours of ſo many years.

He had always ſupported himſelf with the expectation of recovering his liberty at the acceſſion of Peter III.; but he was no ſooner informed of that event, than, with the agitation natural to a perſon in his ſtate, he began to dread that his expectation was ill-founded. He ſuffered, during ſeveral weeks, the moſt alarming anxiety, perpetually fluctuated between hope and fear; and was often heard to declare, that theſe few weeks appeared to him much longer than all the former years of his confinement. At length, on the morning of the 11th of February, 1762, the long-expected meſſenger arrived from Peterſburgh

terſburgh with the order for his releaſe. Munic, who happened to be engaged in his prayers, did not perceive him; and his wife made ſigns to the meſſenger not to diſturb her huſband. Upon being informed of his recall, he was ſo affected as to faint away; but ſoon recovering, he fell down upon his knees, and in the moſt fervent manner offered up his thanks for this change in his ſituation. On the 19th he departed from Pelim, and, on the 24th of March, arrived at Peterſburgh, in the ſame ſheep-ſkin dreſs which he had worn in his priſon. On the 31ſt he was admitted to an audience by the emperor: Peter, after hanging round his neck the order of St. Andrew, and reſtoring him to his antient rank, ſaid to him, "I hope that your advanced age will ſtill permit you to ſerve me." —"Since your majeſty," replied the count at the concluſion of a long ſpeech, "has raiſed "me from darkneſs into light, and recalled "me from Siberia to proſtrate myſelf before "your throne, I ſhall always be moſt willing "to expoſe my life in your ſervice. Neither "a long baniſhment from the throne of ma-"jeſty, nor the climate of Siberia, have been "able to damp, in the ſmalleſt degree, that

"fire

" fire which formerly ſhone with ſuch luſtre " for the intereſts of the Ruſſian empire, and " the glory of its ſovereign."

Munic enjoyed the favour and protection of Peter III. and Catharine II.; and died on the 16th of October, 1767, in the 85th year of his age.

CHAP. III.

Impoſtors who aſſumed the name of Peter III. *particularly* Pugatchef.—*His origin and hiſtory.—He ſerves as a common Coſſac.—Deſerts to* Poland.—*Lives by charity.—Proceeds to* Yaitſk.—*State of the* Ruſſian *ſectaries in thoſe parts, and the mutiny of the Coſſacs of* Yaitſk *favour his rebellion.—Declares himſelf to be* Peter III.—*Acknowledged by theſe Coſſacs.—Joined by other troops.—Collects an irregular army.—His progreſs and ſucceſſes.—Horrid barbarity.—Weakneſs and ill-conduct.—Repeated defeats, eſcapes, and ſubſequent appearance.—He is finally routed.—Betrayed by his adherents.—Executed at* Moſcow.

ALTHOUGH the body of Peter III. was expoſed to public view in the convent of Alexander Nevſki, where it lay in ſtate; yet ſeveral impoſtors ſtarted up in the diſtant regions of the Ruſſian empire, and paſſed for that unfortunate monarch.

The firſt of theſe was a ſhoe-maker of Voronetz, who appeared in that town under the

the name of Peter III. a few years before the rebellion of Pugatchef; but he was ſoon taken and executed.

The ſecond was a deſerter from the regiment of Orlof: his name was Tchernichef; and he roſe in the year 1770, in the ſmall village of Kopenka upon the frontiers of Crim Tartary, at the time that a corps of troops was marching through that place. Some diſſenting prieſts, in his intereſt, having ſuborned a number of followers, raiſed him upon the altar of the church, and were preparing to acknowledge him; but luckily the colonel of the regiment, being informed of the tumult, repaired to the church at the head of a ſtrong guard; took him from the altar; and led him to immediate execution.

A third was a peaſant belonging to the Vorontzof family, who had deſerted from his village; and engaged as a common Coſſac among thoſe who are ſettled upon the Volga at Dubofka: a body of theſe Coſſacs marching in the ſpring of 1772 from Tzaritzin to join the Ruſſian army, he aſſembled them in a ſmall poſt-houſe, ſituated in the lonely deſert between the Don and the Volga, and declared himſelf to be Peter III. Having prevailed upon them to ſalute him emperor,

83717

and to take the oath of allegiance, he even appointed ſeveral officers of ſtate. A few hours after this tranſaction, the commander of the troop unexpectedly arriving, confounded the ſoldiers by his preſence; ſeized the impoſtor by the hair; and by the aſſiſtance of the aſtoniſhed Coſſacs themſelves, who had juſt declared in his favour, bound and conducted him a priſoner to Tzaritzin. During his trial the inhabitants of the fortreſs, excited by the falſe reports of his followers, actually roſe in his favour; and were not without great difficulty diſperſed by colonel Zipletof, the commander of the place. The impoſtor was then carried to one of the iſlands of the Volga, and knooted to death.

About the ſame time a malefactor, who had been tranſported to Irkutſk, formed a ſimilar attempt, and had even gained over an officer who had a penſion from the crown; but his ſecret being ſoon diſcovered, he underwent the ſame fate as thoſe before mentioned.

Yemelka Pugatchef, the rebel whoſe adventures are now under conſideration, narrowly eſcaped the ſame ill fortune at his firſt appearance. This extraordinary man, ſon of the Coſſac Ivan Pugatchef, was born at Simoveiſk,

PUGATCHEF.

Published according to Act of Parliament. Jan.ʳʸ 1ˢᵗ 1784. by T. Cadell in the Strand.

moveiſk, a ſmall village upon the Don. He was a common Coſſac in the war which the Ruſſians, during the reign of Elizabeth, carried on againſt the king of Pruſſia, and ſerved in the ſame capacity during the campaign of 1769 againſt the Turks. He was at the ſiege of Bender; and upon the ſurrender of that town the following year demanded his diſmiſſion, which being refuſed, he deſerted and fled into Poland: he was there received and hid by ſome hermits of the Greek religion, and afterwards ſupported himſelf by begging alms in the town of Dubranka. From thence he made to the colonies in Little Ruſſia, and continued among the ſectaries, who are there eſtabliſhed in great numbers; but being apprehenſive of a diſcovery, he repaired to the principal ſettlement of the Coſſacs of the river Yaik *, and perſuaded ſeveral of them to accompany him to Kuban, but without having as yet aſſumed the name of Peter III. Being arreſted at Malekofka for his treaſonable converſation, he was ſent for trial to Caſan; where the indolence of the governor, and the delays in bringing him to juſtice,

* In order to extinguiſh all remembrance of this rebellion, the river Yaik is now called Ural, Yaitſk, Uralſk, and the Coſſacs of the Yaik, the Uralian Coſſacs.

gave him time and opportunity of eſcaping with a prieſt, who had privately furniſhed him with money for intoxicating the centinels. He then went down the Volga, and up the river Irghis into the deſert; and not long afterwards appeared under the character of Peter III. at the head of a large body of troops. The peculiar circumſtances which ſerved to favour his enterprize were derived from two principal cauſes; the religious prejudices of the Ruſſian diſſenters, and the mutiny of the Coſſacs of the Yaik.

The Ruſſian diſſenters, called by the eſtabliſhed church *Roſkolniki* or ſeparatiſts, diſtinguiſh themſelves by the name of *Staroverſki*, or old believers *. Theſe ſectaries have been frequently perſecuted, and particularly under Peter I. who compelled them to pay double taxes, and to wear a particular badge of diſtinction. Perſecution, however, has only tended to increaſe their numbers; and they are ſtill very numerous in Siberia, and among the Coſſacs in the government of Orenburgh, where the rebellion of Pugatchef firſt broke out. They conſider the ſervice of the

* For the origin of this ſect, ſee Vol. II. Book III. Chap. IV.

eſtabliſhed

eſtabliſhed church as profane and ſacrilegious; they have their own prieſts and ceremonies; and Pugatchef was artful enough to take advantage of their religious prejudices, which he openly profeſſed to eſpouſe and protect.

The mutiny of a large body of Coſſacs was the ſecond cauſe which operated in favour of Pugatchef. The Coſſacs of the Yaik, who are deſcended from thoſe of the Don, are a very brave and valiant race, all enthuſiaſts for the antient ritual, and prizing their beards almoſt equal to their lives: they are rich from their conſiderable fiſheries of ſturgeons; they have alſo acquired a ſpirit of revolt and independence by being ſituated in a deſert between the Calmucs and the Kirgheſe, who are continually at variance with each other, and often with the Coſſacs themſelves. During the war with the Turks, a certain number of recruits were required of theſe Coſſacs for a corps of huſſars; conſequently their beards were ordered to be ſhaven; and as they oppoſed this infringement of their liberties and cuſtoms, major-general Traubenberg, a Livonian officer, who was ſent at the head of a few ſoldiers to Yaitſk to quell the tumult, imprudently commanded that the recruits ſhould be ſhaven publicly in the midſt of the town. This wanton

wanton inſult irritated the inhabitants to ſo great a degree; that they roſe in arms; wounded many of the officers; maſſacred the general and the chief of the Coſſacs; and broke into open rebellion. This event happened at the latter end of 1771. In the following ſpring, general Freyman forced Yaitſk, captured ſeveral ringleaders of the mutiny, and garriſoned part of his troops in the town. Many of the rebels made their eſcape, and, retiring into the deſert, chiefly reſorted to the marſhy grounds which lie about the lake Kamyſh-Samara; where they derived a ſubſiſtence from fiſhing, and ſhooting wild boars, and were ſupplied occaſionally by their relations with bread and proviſions. By theſe means this deſperate troop ſupported themſelves during the ſpace of two years; until Pugatchef made his appearance amongſt them.

That impoſtor, upon his eſcape from priſon, went ſecretly to Yaitſk about the middle of Auguſt, 1773; where he gained over a number of followers among the people who were enraged againſt the garriſon; and who in the ſpring had ſhown a ſtrong diſpoſition to revolt, when a report was circulated that a new emperor was coming amongſt them; a report probably occaſioned by the firſt appearance

pearance of Pugatchef in theſe parts. Having obtained, at Yaitſk, intelligence of the late mutiny, and of the deſertion of the Coſſacs, he went in purſuit of them; and having, in the month of October, found a large body of them employed in fiſhing, he informed them that he was the emperor Peter III.; that he had made his eſcape from priſon, where perſons were ſuborned to aſſaſſinate him; that the rumour of his death was only a fiction invented by the court; and that he now threw himſelf under their protection.

It is not true that he bore the ſmalleſt reſemblance to Peter III.; but he founded his hopes of gaining belief on the diſtance from the capital; on the ignorance of the people; on their actual inſurrection; and, above all, on their attachment to their religious prejudices, which he eſpouſed and protected. Few arguments being neceſſary to win over theſe Coſſacs, already in a ſtate of open rebellion, they all unanimouſly ſaluted him emperor, and offered to ſacrifice their lives in his defence. With theſe, and other bodies of Coſſacs, whom he found equally inclined to follow his ſtandard, he made his firſt expedition to the new Pruſſh colonies lately eſtabliſhed upon the river Irghis, where he gave no proof

of

of his ſubſequent barbarity, deſpoiling the inhabitants of nothing but arms and horſes. He then preſented himſelf before Yaitſk; and having ineffectually ſummoned the governor, in the name of Peter III. to ſurrender, he gave orders for an immediate aſſault. Being repulſed, however, by the courage and intrepidity of the garriſon, and finding little hopes of taking it by ſtorm, he blockaded the place with a view of reducing it by famine; but his attempt was fruſtrated by the reſolution of the governor Rendſdorf, and the incredible perſeverance of the garriſon, who refuſed to capitulate, although they were ſo far ſtreightened for want of proviſions, as not only to eat their horſes, but even to feed upon leather. This obſtinate reſiſtance protracted the ſiege, until Yaitſk could be relieved by a body of Ruſſian troops.

Pugatchef, though baffled in this enterprize, was more ſucceſsful in his future operations: he led his followers againſt the Coſſac colonies of Ilets; aſſaulted and carried, without oppoſition, the two fortreſſes of Raſypnaya and Oſernaya; attacked Tatiſcheva, where he met with ſomewhat greater reſiſtance; but as the fortifications were only of wood, he ſet fire to them, and forced the place.

place. A body of troops ſent againſt him from Orenburg, under colonel Bulof, partly through weakneſs, and partly through miſconduct, was overpowered. Another corps, who, in order to join the former, marched from Simbirſk up the Samara, under the command of colonel Tchernichef, (ſo ill were the operations concerted) arrived too late. Deceived by parties of Pugatchef's followers, they were drawn into the defiles near Tchernoretchinſk, and ſo ſuddenly beſet, that they were incapable of making any reſiſtance. In all theſe actions, the officers who fell into Pugatchef's hands were indiſcriminately maſſacred; and the common ſoldiers were either made priſoners, or joined the rebels. His army being conſiderably augmented by theſe ſucceſſes, he ventured to beſiege Orenburg, where the governor had ſcarce forces ſufficient to defend the fortifications; and the town would have been inevitably taken, if the garriſon of Kraſnogorſk had not thrown themſelves into the place by forcing their way through the beſiegers.

As ſoon as the report of Pugatchef's progreſs was diſſeminated, the Baſchkirs, a people unſettled under the Ruſſian government, declared immediately for the impoſtor, and joined him in large bodies: their example was

followed

followed by many Ruſſian coloniſts, and particularly by the peaſants employed in the mines and founderies of the Uralian mountains *. Theſe forces he either employed in the ſiege of Orenburg, before which town he ſpent part of the winter in all poſſible acts of wantonneſs, drunkenneſs, and cruelty; or ſent them to collect money from the founderies, and to caſt copper guns, and balls, which he uſed in battering Orenburg. At this time his army was ſo ſtrong, that all the forces which could be drawn from Caſan could ſcarcely oppoſe him at the ridge of the mountains lying between that town and Orenburg. In this ſame winter he received a powerful reinforcement by the junction of 11,000 Calmuc horſe from the neighbourhood of Stauropol, who revolted and killed their commander, brigadier Veghezak. Strengthened by theſe acceſſions, his troops roved over the whole mountainous diſtrict of Orenburg, where only the ſmall town of Upha made the leaſt reſiſtance. He was even advancing to Catharinenburg, where he would have found copper coin to the value of £. 200,000; but a delay, occaſioned by a

* The Uralian mountains abound in copper mines.

falſe

falſe report that a ſuperior force was marching againſt him, fortunately afforded time to collect the ſoldiers ſtationed on the Siberian frontiers, and to cover that place.

The people were ſo greatly attached to the cauſe of Pugatchef, that he never wanted proviſions or forage. Colonel Michaelſon, to whoſe ſpirit and activity was principally owing the defeat of Pugatchef, ſuddenly entering a large village at the head of his corps, the inhabitants, taking him at firſt for Pugatchef, flocked about his ſtandard; and exclaimed, "We have long expected your ma-"jeſty's preſence as that of a god!" The colonel obſerved before each houſe a table ſpread with bread, milk, honey, and other proviſions, for the purpoſe of regaling the followers of Pugatchef; which they unwillingly reſigned to the imperial troops.

At firſt Pugatchef affected the appearance of uncommon ſanctity: he frequently wore the epiſcopal dreſs; gave his benediction to the people; renounced all ambitious views for himſelf; and expreſſed a reſolution that, as ſoon as he had raiſed his ſon the great-duke to the throne, he would again retire into the monaſtery, which had given him an aſylum

upon his eſcape from priſon. He was alſo active and enterpriſing, eager to ſignalize his arms, and ready to ſeize every advantage which the ſituation of the enemy preſented: but incapable of ſupporting with equanimity his ſucceſſes, which followed each other with ſuch rapidity, he began to conſider all further diſſimulation as unneceſſary. He became for ſome time dilatory in his meaſures; and his natural temper broke out into the moſt unwarrantable exceſſes.

He had omitted the moſt favourable opportunity of marching towards Moſcow; where the ſpirit of rebellion had penetrated, and which would probably have fallen into his hands, as it was defended by only 600 regular troops; and as the Turkiſh war prevented marſhal Romantzof from ſending any great detachment from the troops on the Danube. Inſtead of vigorouſly continuing the progreſs of his army, he paſſed the greateſt part of the winter before Yaitſk and Orenburg: at the ſiege of which latter place he maſſacred, with the moſt ſavage barbarity, all the officers and nobles who were brought before him; and as he openly avowed an intention of exterminating the whole Ruſſian nobility, he ſpared neither ſex nor age; but cut

off,

off, without compunction, women and children, as well as thoſe who were capable of bearing arms againſt him. His conduct was as imprudent as it was barbarous. Though already married to Sophia, the daughter of a Coſſac, by whom he had three children, he yet eſpouſed a common woman of Yaitſk. He delayed his march againſt the enemy for the celebration of his nuptials; and exhibited continued ſcenes of the moſt public intoxication and riot.

He was ſupported by no perſons of rank or conſequence; but, in order to impoſe upon his army, ſome of his moſt confidential adherents had aſſumed the names of the principal Ruſſian nobility, and wore the ſeveral orders of knighthood. By a ſignal to his attendants, he maſſacred all German officers who were brought before him; in order to prevent his ignorance of a language, which, as Peter III. he muſt have underſtood, from being obſerved by his followers.

During theſe tranſactions, general Bibikof, advancing into theſe parts at the head of a very conſiderable army, detached his major-general, prince Peter Galitzin, againſt the rebels, who ſurpriſed Pugatchef with his whole force near Tatiſcheva, and worſted him for

the firſt * time. Being compelled to retire, he was cloſely purſued and overtaken by prince Galitzin near Kargula, upon the river Sakmara, about the diſtance of twelve miles from Orenburg; he was completely routed, his deſultory troops were diſperſed, and he himſelf narrowly eſcaped, with a few of his moſt faithful followers, into the Uralian mountains: notwithſtanding this diſcomfiture, he collected his ſcattered men; and ſoon made his appearance with a reſpectable force on the Eaſt ſide of thoſe mountains. He carried ſeveral ſmall fortreſſes, and burnt Troitzk; but being attacked near that place by lieutenant-general de Colm, he was obliged to retreat a ſecond time into the mountains. Rendered deſperate by theſe repeated defeats, and deſirous of again ſignalizing his arms by ſome brilliant exploit, he ſuddenly directed his march towards Caſan, committing in his progreſs the moſt dreadful devaſtations. Having burnt the

* This firſt defeat of Pugatchef himſelf in perſon happened on the 23d of March. On the 22d colonel Michaelſon, with only 1,000 troops and ſix cannon, had routed his general, who called himſelf colonel Tchernichef, at the head of 16,000 men, and took 42 cannon and eight mortars. Pugatchef had offered a reward of 100,000 roubles for the head of colonel Michaelſon.

ſuburbs

ſuburbs of that town, he laid ſiege to the citadel, which is built upon an eminence, and whither major-general Paul Potemkin the governor, and all his attendants, had retired. Being compelled to raiſe the ſiege, by the approach of colonel Michaelſon, at the head of only 1,200 troops, he was routed by that officer a little beyond Caſan, after ſeveral obſtinate engagements, which continued with little interruption during three days. In this engagement 6,000 were taken priſoners, and ſo many were killed, that the peaſants employed ſix days in burying the dead; and Pugatchef, accompanied only by three hundred well-armed Coſſacs of Yaitſk, who were the moſt deſperate rebels, and in whom he chiefly confided, fled acroſs the Volga. But afterwards he was joined by large bodies of Coſſacs and Baſhkirs; while ill-armed peaſants, who looked upon him as their deliverer, flocked to his ſtandard from very conſiderable diſtances. In this manner the impoſtor ſeemed to gain ſtrength from his loſſes; and he derived ſuch deluſive hopes from the number of his troops, which occaſionally amounted to 70,000 men, that he had even formed the reſolution of proceeding to Moſcow, where one of his emiſſaries had raiſed a ſpirit of ſedition among the

common people of that city. But apprehenſive, leſt, as peace was concluded with the Turks, part of the army on the Danube might now be employed againſt him, he ſoon changed his plan of operations.

He marched down the Volga; routed at Dubofka a party under the command of Baron Dies; ſtormed Penſa and Saratof, where the governor eſcaped only with fifty ſoldiers; and got poſſeſſion of Demitreſſk by treachery, and executed the commander. Near that fortreſs, the aſtronomer Lowitz, member of the Academy of Sciences, who was employed in levelling the projected canal between the Don and Volga, was murdered in a moſt inhuman manner. In this inſtance, inſult was added to cruelty: being informed that he was an aſtronomer, Pugatchef wantonly ordered him to be transfixed upon pikes, and raiſed in the air, in order to be nearer the ſtars; and in that ſituation he was maſſacred by the command, and in the preſence of the barbarian.

But the enormities of this monſter were ſoon cloſed by a fate which he had long deſerved. The court, no longer embarraſſed with a Turkiſh war, was able to turn its whole attention towards cruſhing this diſtant rebellion; and count Peter Panin, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf

himſelf by the taking of Bender, was ſent againſt the impoſtor. That able general, moving towards the Volga, detached ſeveral troops to the aſſiſtance of colonel Michaelſon: the latter, ſtrengthened by this ſmall reinforcement, compelled Pugatchef to raiſe the ſiege of Tzaritzin; drove him towards Tchernoyarſk; cut off his proviſions; and finally attacked him unawares as he was marching with his half-ſtarved multitude, embarraſſed with a large train of loaded carriages and women who followed his camp. The rebel army being ſurprized in a defile between two ridges of mountains which run towards the Volga, was entirely routed; many were cut to pieces; more, as they were endeavouring to eſcape, were precipitated down the ſteep precipices with their horſes and carriages; and the greateſt part of the remainder ſurrendered at diſcretion. Pugatchef, after many deſperate efforts of valour, eſcaped, with a few of his principal followers, by ſwimming acroſs the Volga; and retired through the deſert towards the river Uſem, where he had begun his firſt expedition. Here he was gradually deſerted by his followers, who were worn out with miſery and hunger; and was at laſt betrayed by thoſe in whom he placed the greateſt confidence.

Tvogorof, a Coſſac of Iletz, and Tchumakef and Fidulef, Coſſacs of Yaitſk, were induced by the promiſe of a pardon to betray him. One of theſe perſons repreſented to the impoſtor, that, ſurrounded as he was by the enemy, he could entertain no hopes of ſafety; and adviſed him to reſign himſelf into the hands of the Ruſſians, upon condition of receiving a pardon. Pugatchef, however, was ſo enraged at this propoſal, that he drew his dagger, and attempted to ſtab the author of ſuch daſtardly advice; upon which his companions inſtantly diſarmed, bound, and conducted him a priſoner to a corps of troops poſted upon the river Yaik under general Savorof's orders. He was conveyed to the town of Yaitſk; and from thence delivered to count Panin at Simbirſk, who ſent him, with his principal confederates, to Moſcow; where he arrived in the month of November 1774. Being examined, he acknowledged all the circumſtances of his impoſture, and was publicly beheaded in the city of Moſcow, on the 21ſt of January. His body was then quartered, and expoſed in different places of the city.

Nothing can place the humanity of the empreſs in a ſtronger light, than that, at the concluſion

cluſion of a rebellion which almoſt ſhook her throne, the impoſtor Pugatchef was not put to the torture *; and that only he and four of his principal confederates ſuffered death.

* When I viſited the priſon of Moſcow, I ſaw ſeveral horrid inſtruments which had been made on purpoſe to torture Pugatchef, but which, by the empreſs's poſitive orders, were not uſed. L'Eveſque is wrong, therefore, in aſſerting that he was racked to death. "*Il perit du ſupplice de la roue.*" Vol. V. p. 143.

CHAP. IV.

Deſcription of the knoot.—Penal laws of Ruſſia.—*Abolition of capital puniſhments by the edict of* Elizabeth.—*Remarks upon that edict.—Capital puniſhments not really, though apparently, ſuppreſſed.—Abolition of torture by the preſent empreſs.—Her majeſty's anſwer to the author's queries upon priſons.—Outlines of the new regulations.—Their excellence and beneficial tendency.*

ONE morning, as I was caſually ſtrolling through the ſtreets of St. Peterſburgh, near the market-place, I obſerved a large croud of people flocking to one particular ſpot. Upon inquiring of my Ruſſian ſervant the cauſe of this concourſe, he informed me, that the multitude was aſſembled in order to ſee a felon, who had been convicted of murder, receive the knoot. Although I naturally ſhuddered at the very idea of being a ſpectator of the agonies of a fellow-creature, yet my curioſity overcame my feelings. With the aſſiſtance of my ſervant I penetrated through the croud, and aſcended the

the roof of a wooden houſe of one ſtory; from whence I had a diſtinct view of the dreadful operation, which was already begun. The executioner held in his hand the knoot *: this inſtrument is a thong, about the thickneſs of a crown-piece, and about three quarters of an inch broad, and rendered extremely hard by a peculiar kind of preparation: it is tied to a thick plaited whip, which is connected, by means of an iron ring, with a ſmall piece of leather that acts like a ſpring, and is faſtened to a ſhort wooden handle.

The executioner, before every ſtroke, receded a few paces, and at the ſame time drew back the hand which held the knoot; then,

* The following are the exact dimenſions and weight of a knoot, which I procured in Ruſſia, and which is now in my poſſeſſion.

Length of the thong 2 feet; breadth of the top $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch; at the bottom $\frac{1}{2}$.—Thickneſs $\frac{1}{8}$.—Length of the plaited whip 2 feet.—Circumference of ditto $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches.—Diameter of the ring 1 inch and $\frac{5}{8}$.—Length of the leather ſpring 1 inch and $\frac{1}{2}$.—Length of the handle 1 foot $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches.—Length of the whole 5 feet 5 inches and $\frac{5}{8}$.—Weight 11 ounces.

The reader will judge of the great force which the ſkilful executioner can give to this inſtrument, when informed, that if he receives a private order, he can diſpatch the criminal by ſtriking him two or three blows upon the ribs.

bounding forwards, he applied the flat end of the thong with conſiderable force to the naked back of the criminal in a perpendicular line, reaching ſix or ſeven inches from the collar towards the waiſt. He began by hitting the right ſhoulder, and continued his ſtrokes parallel to each other quite to the left ſhoulder; nor ceaſed till he had inflicted 333 laſhes, the number preſcribed by the ſentence. At the concluſion of this terrible operation, the noſtrils of the criminal were torn with pincers; his face marked with a hot iron; and he was re-conducted to priſon, in order to be tranſported to the mines of Nerſhinſk in Siberia.

As ſeveral authors have erroneouſly deſcribed or exaggerated the puniſhment of the knoot, I have been thus particular in relating what fell under my obſervation; and I ſhall take this opportunity of throwing together a few remarks upon the penal laws of Ruſſia.

By the antient ſtatutes, felons, as well as traitors, were publicly executed: but by an edict of the empreſs Elizabeth, certain corporal penalties were, in caſes of felony, ſubſtituted in the room of capital ſentences; a circumſtance peculiar to the Ruſſian code.

According to the preſent penal laws, of-

fenders are puniſhed in the following manner. Perſons convicted of high treaſon are either beheaded or impriſoned for life. Felons, after receiving the knoot, having their noſtrils torn and their faces marked, as I have juſt deſcribed, are condemned for life to work in the mines of Nerſhinſk. Petty offenders are either whipped *, tranſported into Siberia as coloniſts, or ſentenced to hard labour for a ſtated period. Among the coloniſts are included peaſants, who may be arbitrarily conſigned by their maſters to baniſhment †.

All theſe perſons, felons and others, are tranſported in ſpring and autumn from different parts of the Ruſſian dominions. They travel part of the way by water, and part by land; are chained in pairs, and faſtened to a long rope: at night they are carried to different cottages, and guarded by the ſoldiers who conduct them. When the whole troop arrive at Tobolſk, the governor aſſigns the coloniſts who have been bred to handicraft trades to different maſters in the town; others he diſ-

* There are three inſtruments for whipping in Ruſſia: the knoot, the katze, and the plett, both of which latter are a kind of cat-o'-nine-tails.

† Their maſters are empowered to inflict this puniſhment, only aſſigning the cauſe of the offence.

poſes

poſes as vaſſals in the neighbouring country. The remainder of the coloniſts go on to Irkutſk, where they are diſpoſed of by the governor of that town in the ſame manner. The felons then proceed alone to the diſtrict of Nerſhinſk; where they are condemned to work in the ſilver mines, or at the different forges.

Travellers, who have viſited Ruſſia previous to the reign of Elizabeth, uniformly concur in relating the various modes of public executions, and in reprobating the ſeverity of the criminal laws. But though we may join with every friend to humanity in rejoicing that many of theſe dreadful puniſhments no longer exiſt; yet we cannot aſſent to the high encomiums paſſed upon the ſuperior excellence of the penal code ſince the edict of Elizabeth, which is ſuppoſed to have totally annulled capital condemnations.

From this ſuppreſſion of capital puniſhment in all inſtances excepting treaſon, Elizabeth has been repreſented, not only by the lively Voltaire, but even by the ſagacious Blackſtone *, as a ſtandard of legiſlative clemency. Yet

* Voltaire thus expreſſes himſelf upon this edict. « *L'Impératrice Elizabeth a achevé, par la clémence, l'ou-* « *vrage que ſon père commença par les loix. Cette indul-* « *gence*

Yet however incontrovertible it may be that the infliction of death for offences, which ought

« *gence a été même pouſſée à un point, dont il n'y a point* « *d'exemple dans l'hiſtoire d'aucun peuple. Elle a promis,* « *que pendant ſon regne perſonne ne ſerait puni de mort, & a* « *tenu ſa promeſſe. Elle eſt la premiére ſouveraine qui ait* « *ainſi reſpecté la vie des hommes.* Les malfaiteurs ont été « condamnés aux mines, aux travaux publics: leurs châti- « mens ſont devenus utiles à l'état; inſtitution non moins « ſage que humane. Partout ailleurs on ne ſait que tuer « un criminel, avec appareil, ſans avoir jamais empêché les « crimes. La terreur de la mort fait moins d'impreſſion « peut-être ſur des méchants pour la plûpart fainéants, que « la crainte d'un châtiment & d'un travail penible qui re- « naiſſent tous les jours." Hiſt. de Ruſſie, p. 120.

Sir William Blackſtone makes the following remark upon the ſame prohibition.

" Was the vaſt territory of all the Ruſſias worſe regu- " lated under the late empreſs Elizabeth, than under her " more ſanguinary predeceſſors? Is it now, under Catha- " rine II. leſs civilized, leſs ſocial, leſs ſecure? And yet " *we are aſſured, that neither of thoſe illuſtrious princeſſes* " *have, throughout their whole adminiſtration, inflicted the* " *penalty of death*; and the latter has, upon full perſuaſion " of its being uſeleſs, nay, even pernicious, given orders " for *aboliſhing it entirely* throughout her extenſive domi- " nions." Commentaries, vol. IV. p. 10.

And lately L'Eveſque, " Les grands crimes ont com- " mencé à devenir plus rares ſous ce regne, *où perſonne n'a* " *été puni de mort.*" Hiſt. de Ruſſie, Tom. V. p. 92.

Voltaire aſſigns, as the grounds of his encomiums on Elizabeth's ſuppreſſion of capital puniſhment, the two following

ought not to be eſteemed capital, is much too frequent in many countries; we may venture to

lowing reaſons: 1. That the permanent chaſtiſement which entails upon the offender a long continuance of hardſhips and miſery, has a greater effect upon the multitude, than the ſummary pangs of death. 2. That the preſervation of malefactors is ſubſervient to public emolument. 1. Upon the firſt reaſon I ſhall briefly remark, that the horror of diſſolution has been repeatedly obſerved in the generality of mankind to preponderate beyond any other terrors; and that if we could deviſe a puniſhment more terrible than death, this new puniſhment, in order to work its effect upon vulgar minds, ought to be inflicted within the reach of vulgar obſervation, and not in the remoteſt region of Siberia. For can we ſuppoſe that the lower claſs of mankind, who are governed by their ſenſes, receive any ſtrong impreſſion from the caſual report of ſufferings endured at a great diſtance? 2. Voltaire's ſecond reaſon for his applauſe of Elizabeth's edict, namely, the profit which the community derives from the labour of a malefactor whoſe life is ſpared, will hardly be allowed to hold good in regard to murderers; for if capital puniſhments be really the moſt efficacious prevention of crimes, they will neceſſarily form a ſtronger bulwark round the lives of orderly citizens than any other penalties. The legiſlator, therefore, who ſubverts this ſecurity with a view to the emolument of the ſtate, actually revives the old barbarous cuſtom of weighing the life of man in a ſcale againſt pecuniary advantage, with this material difference, however, in favour of that barbarous cuſtom, that the latter aſſigned the price of blood to the relations of the perſon whoſe blood had been ſhed, and who

to affirm, that Elizabeth's modification of the criminal laws is perhaps no leſs exceptionable, in point of policy and expedience, than illuſive, in regard to its ſuppoſed lenity.

With reſpect to the firſt poſition, its contradiction to ſound policy; ſhould we even erroneouſly ſuppoſe, with ſome authors *, that

who had a more immediate claim, than the community at large, on any compenſation made by the offender.

Judge Blackſtone intimates his doubts concerning the ſuperior efficacy of capital puniſhments over other penalties in the ſhape of a query. Was the vaſt territory, &c. But no reader can perhaps anſwer this queſtion in the negative; nor could the ſagacious author himſelf have anſwered it in the affirmative. For can it be deciſively determined, except by a collection and compariſon, during a long ſeries of years, of felonies reſpectively committed under the two different modes of juriſprudence? and judge Blackſtone does not pretend to have formed his theory on this ground: But after all, this reaſoning ſuppoſes a fact which in reality does not exiſt, that no criminal has ſuffered capitally ſince the acceſſion of Elizabeth; the falſity of which aſſertion is, as I flatter myſelf, abundantly proved in the text.

I entered Ruſſia fully prejudiced in favour of the notion, that there no perſons were ever puniſhed with death. I was firſt undeceived by a foreign gentleman, to whom I addreſſed the queſtion, Whether there were any capital executions in Ruſſia? "Malefactors, indeed," he returned, "are not beheaded or hanged? but they are not unfre-"quently knooted to death."

* See the former note.

the

the edict has been literally obeyed, and that, during the ſpace of forty years, not one criminal has ſuffered death throughout the vaſt empire of Ruſſia; ſurely this lenity to the moſt atrocious crimes cannot but be conſidered as extremely injurious to the ſociety. For, as a denunciation of death is probably, to the generality of mankind, the moſt formidable prevention of crimes, the removal conſequently of this ſalutary terror withdraws a material ſafeguard from the lives and property of worthy citizens; and diminiſhes that ſecurity which theſe valuable members of ſociety have a right to claim from the protection of the laws. I advance, however, this firſt objection to this celebrated and much-extolled edict with that heſitation, which the intereſts of humanity and the intricate nature of the ſubject require.

But, with regard to the ſecond objection, that its lenity is illuſive; this poſition will not reſt merely upon theoretical reaſoning, but be incontrovertibly eſtabliſhed by poſitive fact. A diſpaſſionate perſon will probably feel no extraordinary veneration for this boaſted abolition of capital puniſhment; when he reflects, that though the criminal laws of Ruſſia do not *literally* ſentence malefactors to death; they

they ſtill conſign many to that doom through the medium of puniſhments, in ſome circumſtances, almoſt aſſuredly, if not profeſſedly fatal; which mock with the hopes of life, but in reality protract the horrors of death; and embitter with delay an event which reaſon wiſhes to be inſtantaneous. For when we conſider that many felons expire under the infliction, or from the conſequences of the knoot; that ſeveral are exhauſted by the fatigue of the long journey to Nerſhinſk *, the remoteſt region of Siberia; and that the forlorn remnant periſh in general prematurely from the unwholeſomeneſs of the mines; it will be difficult to view the doom of theſe unhappy outcaſts in any other light than that of a lingering execution. In effect, ſince the promulgation of the edict in queſtion; a year has never paſſed in which many atrocious criminals, though legally condemned to other penalties, have not been capitally puniſhed. And indeed, upon a general calculation, it will perhaps be found; that notwithſtanding the apparent mildneſs of the penal code, not fewer malefactors ſuffer death in Ruſſia, than in thoſe countries wherein that mode of puniſh-

* 4776 miles from Peterſburgh.

ment is appointed by the laws. It will therefore be evident to the reader, that capital penalties are virtually and neceſſarily retained; although the chief utility reſulting from the terror of certain deſtruction is conſiderably diminiſhed.

The panegyriſts of Elizabeth would certainly have entertained ſome doubts concerning her boaſted clemency; if they had recollected that ſhe did not aboliſh, but retained the following horrid proceſs for the purpoſe of extorting confeſſion from perſons charged with treaſonable deſigns. The arms of the ſuſpected perſon being tied behind by a rope, he was drawn up in that poſture to a conſiderable height in the air; from whence, being ſuddenly precipitated to within a ſmall diſtance of the ground, and being there as ſuddenly checked, the violence of the concuſſion diſlocated his ſhoulders, and in that deplorable ſituation he underwent the knoot. To this dreadful engine of barbarity and deſpotiſm, Elizabeth, amidſt all her imputed lenity, gave unlimited ſcope; and, during her whole reign, it was ordinarily applied even at the diſcretion of inferior and ignorant magiſtrates; nor was it aboliſhed until the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs, who has prohibited the uſe of torture in all criminal caſes.

Although

Although the ſovereign of this empire is abſolute in the moſt unlimited ſenſe of the word; yet the prejudice of the Ruſſians in regard to the neceſſity of torture (and a wiſe legiſlator will always reſpect popular prejudices, be they ever ſo abſurd and unreaſonable) was ſo deeply rooted by immemorial uſage, that it required great circumſpection in the empreſs not to raiſe diſcontents by an immediate abolition of that inhuman practice. Accordingly, the cautious manner in which it was gradually ſuppreſſed, diſcovered as much judgment as benevolence. In 1762, Catharine, ſoon after her acceſſion, took away the power of inflicting torture from the vayvodes, or inferior juſtices, by whom it had been ſhamefully abuſed. In 1767, a ſecret order was iſſued to the judges in the ſeveral provinces, that whenever they ſhould think torture requiſite to force a criminal to confeſſion, they ſhould draw up the general articles of the charge, and lay the caſe before the governor of the province for his conſideration: and all the governors had received previous directions to determine the caſe according to the principles laid down in the third * queſtion of the tenth

* Queſtion III. "*La queſtion ne bleſſe-t-elle pas la "juſtice, et conduit-elle au but*, &c." See Inſtructions de Catharine II. &c. p. 51 to 55.

chapter of her majeſty's inſtructions for a code of laws; wherein torture is proved to be no leſs uſeleſs than cruel. This, therefore, was a tacit abolition of torture, which has been ſince formally and publicly annulled. The prohibition of this horrid ſpecies of judicature, throughout the vaſt dominions of the Ruſſian empire, forms a memorable æra in the annals of humanity.

At Moſcow and Peterſburgh I viſited the priſons, of which I have already given an ample account in a former publication *. In this place I ſhall only remark in general; that the empreſs, being informed of my reſearches in relation to priſons, with a condeſcenſion peculiar to her character, permitted me to deliver to count Ivan Tchernichef, vice-preſident of the admiralty, a liſt of queries, with reſpect to ſome of which I received information; by her orders, from her beſt-informed governors †, and others ſhe even condeſcended to anſwer herſelf. The latter I ſhall here ſubjoin, with a full conviction, that obſervations even of leſs moment would be rendered ac-

* Account of the Priſons and Hoſpitals in Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, &c.

† I have made uſe of theſe papers in the treatiſe mentioned in the laſt note.

ceptable

ceptable by the authority of ſo diſtinguiſhed a character.

Queries upon the Ruſſian priſons, delivered to the empreſs.

1. *Is there any general plan for the conſtruction of priſons, and their interior diſtribution? and are they uſually ſituated in the ſuburbs, and near the running water?*

2. *What precautions are taken, in order to keep the priſons clean, and to prevent epidemical diſtempers?*

Anſwers dictated by the empreſs to her ſecretary, and ſent to the author.

" 1. There has been " hitherto no general " plan for the con- " ſtruction of priſons, " nor rules for their " diſtribution and ſitu- " ation.

" 2. There is no " more regulation for " the cleanlineſs of the " priſons, than for their " conſtruction and ſi- " tuation. By an abuſe " favourable to the pri- " ſoners, they are in " many places permit- " ted to go to the baths. " It is probable that " the cold alone pre-

" vents epidemical diſ-
" orders.

3. *Is there a ſeparate infirmary for the ſick?*

"3. Not every where.

4. *Are petty offenders kept apart from the felons, and are the felons alſo ſeparated from each other?*

" 4. Although it is
" preſcribed by the an-
" tient laws that a fe-
" lon, when he is ſen-
" tenced to death, ſhall
" be kept in a ſepa-
" rate room, called the
" chamber of repent-
" ance, nevertheleſs,
" there are nowhere
" chambers of that de-
" ſcription.

5. *Are the priſoners permitted to purchaſe ſpirituous liquors, and do the jailers ſell them?*

" 5. Every ſpecies
" of food is ſold in the
" priſons, but the jailer
" cannot ſell ſpirituous
" liquors, and that for
" two reaſons: Firſt,
" becauſe ſpirituous li-
" quors can only be
" ſold by thoſe who
" farm the right of
" vending them from
" the

" the crown. Secondly, what is very extraordinary, there are no jailers * to any of the prisons, although the laws make mention of them.

6. *Are female criminals put in irons?*

" 6. The laws are silent upon this head. So that whenever this custom is practised, it must be reckoned among those innumerable abuses, which ought to be abolished †.

7. *Is the fate of criminals condemned to hard labour ever mitigated in case of reformation? Do they*

" 7. Criminals condemned to public labour are transported: for murder they are branded in the face

* The prisoners are guarded by soldiers.

† The original passage, which is in the French language, does not admit of a literal translation:

" *Les loix passent sous silence ce point: ainsi ce que pourroit se faire à cet égard peut être compté parmi l'inombrable quantité des abus. Ces abus sont pour la plupart autant de clous qu'il faut tirer du corps politique de l'etat où on les trouve.*"

wear any badge of infamy, and is it taken away upon good behaviour?

" with an hot iron, &c. " ſome are chained, o- " thers have their noſ- " trils torn; and, un- " leſs upon a general " or particular amneſ- " ty, they receive no " mitigation.

8. *Are there fixed times and places in the ſeveral provinces for the trial of criminals?*

" 8. The laws ſet- " tled indeed certain " times for this pur- " poſe; but, as a great " quantity of different " affairs and trials were " decided in the ſame " tribunal, the courts " of criminal juſtice " were very dilatory " in their proceed- " ings.

" See the manifeſto " of 1775, at the head " of the Regulations*, " &c.

* Reglements de ſa maj. imp. pour l'adminiſtration des Gouvernements, &c.

" New

" New Plan for the Ruſſian Priſons, to be
" introduced into each government.

" 1. To divide the priſons into civil and " criminal. 2. The criminal priſon ſhall be " diſtributed into three parts. The firſt, for " criminals before and during trial; the ſe- " cond, for perſons ſentenced to confinement " for a ſtated time; and the third, for felons " capitally convicted, condemned to perpetual " impriſonment, or to the public works. 3. " Each part ſhall be ſeparated, one for the " men, the other for the women. 4. There " ſhall be an infirmary for ſick priſoners. 5. " The priſon ſhall be conſtructed without the " town, in an airy ſituation, and near the " water."

It cannot be otherwiſe than a ſubject of pleaſing reflection to the reader, that this great princeſs thus condeſcends to contemplate and alleviate the ſufferings of even the wretched victims to public juſtice; but how much more will the veneration for her be increaſed, when he conſiders her as erecting the glorious ſuperſtructure of national happineſs on the firm baſis of equal legiſlation?

The empreſs, at her acceſſion, found the Ruſſian code of laws a rude and indigeſted

chaos; and ſaw the immediate neceſſity of amending and reforming it. The courts of juſtice were regulated by the ſtatutes of Alexèy Michaelovitch *, extremely defective both as to order and preciſion; and by the *ukaſes* or imperial mandates iſſued by Peter and his ſucceſſors, uncommonly numerous, and in many important points contradictory to each other.

The vaſt empire of Ruſſia was diſtributed into a few extenſive governments: each government was ſubdivided into provinces, and each province into diſtricts, or circles. Over each government was appointed a governor; over the provinces a vayvode and his officers,

* The earlieſt regular code of written laws was formed, in 1542, by Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. from precedents and antient cuſtoms.

The ſtatutes of Alexèy Michaelovitch, alluded to in the text, were chiefly compoſed from the above-mentioned code, from the mandates of the ſovereigns ſubſequent to Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. from the deciſions of the boiars, who in thoſe times preſided in the high courts of juſtice, and from the Byzantine laws or edicts iſſued by the Greek emperors of Conſtantinople. The new ſtatutes, compiled from theſe ſources, with a few additions, being in 1650 read in the tzar's preſence, were printed, and a copy ſent into each province.

See Statuta Moſchovitica in Herberſteini Itin. in Moſchoviam; alſo Von Juſtiz-Weſen in Haygold's Beylagen, p. 379.

who

who formed a chancery; and over the diſtricts an inferior vayvode, or a kind of juſtice of peace. The abuſes which reſulted from this diſtribution are ſufficiently detailed in the following paſſage, from the manifeſto of the empreſs prefixed to the firſt part of the new code *:

" We find that many governments are not " ſufficiently provided with tribunals or of- " ficers of juſtice in proportion to their ex- " tent; that not only the affairs of the trea- " ſury and of the police, but alſo the civil " and criminal cauſes, are tried in the ſame " court in which the adminiſtration of go- " vernment is carried on. Nor are the pro- " vinces and diſtricts in theſe ſame govern- " ments leſs ſubject to ſimilar inconveniences; " as the ſole chancery of the vayvode is the " only court which has cognizance of ſo " many and ſuch different affairs. The diſ- " orders reſulting from theſe circumſtances " are but too evident. On one ſide delays, " omiſſions, and vexations, are the natural " conſequences of ſo incongruous and defec- " tive a conſtitution; where one buſineſs im- " pedes another; and where the impoſſibi-

* Reglements de Catharine II. &c. p. VII.

" lity of terminating matters ſo various in the " ſole chancery of the vayvode occaſions pro- " craſtination, neglect of duty, and admits " only a partial diſpatch of buſineſs: on the " other ſide, theſe delays generate chicanery, " and encourage the commiſſion of crimes; " becauſe the puniſhment does not follow the " tranſgreſſion of the laws with that celerity " which is neceſſary to repreſs and ſtrike ter- " ror into offenders: while endleſs appeals * " from one court to another are perpetual ob- " ſtructions to juſtice."

But the greateſt evil to the lower claſs of people was derived from the enormous authority of the inferior vayvode; who, though uſually a perſon of low birth, and totally ignorant of the laws, yet could not only impoſe puniſhment for petty offences, but had even the power of ordering the knoot, of inflicting torture, and of tranſporting to Siberia.

* The manifeſto of the empreſs enumerates the following inſtances of appeal in the affairs relative to commerce, as well as all cauſes of merchants or burghers. " A perſon, not content with the deciſion by oral judge- " ment, could carry his cauſe before the magiſtrate of the " town, from whoſe ſentence he might appeal to the ma- " giſtrate of the province, from him ſucceſſively to the " magiſtrate of the government, to the ſuperior magiſtrate, " and laſtly to the ſenate." Ibid. p. VIII.

Hence

Hence perſons ſuſpected of crimes were detained in priſon ſeveral years without being brought to a final trial; were applied to the torture without ſufficient proof, and frequently more than once.

Many ſovereigns ſubſequent to Alexèy Michaelovitch, and particularly Peter I, had framed the project for amending and reforming the Ruſſian juriſprudence, but had never carried it into execution: the completion of this arduous undertaking was reſerved for Catharine II; who, in 1767, ſummoned deputies to Moſcow from every part of her extenſive dominions, and having appointed commiſſioners for compoſing a new code of laws, delivered to them her Grand Inſtructions *, which had been previouſly compoſed by her imperial majeſty in the true ſpirit of genuine legiſlation. In conformity to theſe inſtruc-

* "Inſtructions de Catharine II. pour la Commiſſion "chargée de dreſſer le Projet d'un Nouveau Code de "Loix." St. Pet. 1769.

Theſe inſtructions have been tranſlated into moſt modern languages, and into Engliſh by Tatiſchef, a Ruſſian gentleman; to which is prefixed, a deſcription of the manner of opening the commiſſion, with the order and rules for electing the commiſſioners appointed to frame a new code of laws. See The Grand Inſtructions, &c. printed by Jefferys.

tions,

tions, the firſt part of a new code made its appearance in 1775; and a ſecond part in 1780; and has been received in many of the new governments into which the Ruſſian empire has been lately divided. Many of the abuſes, as well thoſe above enumerated as others of no leſs moment, have been removed by theſe new inſtitutions; and many of them ſtill exiſting will be aboliſhed, if the empreſs has time to complete the ſyſtem.

As an ample detail of theſe regulations falls not within the compaſs of the preſent work, nor within the capacity of the author; it is to be hoped that the curioſity of the public will be in ſome meaſure gratified by the enumeration of the moſt ſtriking peculiarities in this extenſive plan; which has changed and modified the whole ſyſtem of government.

The empire, which had been divided by Peter the Great into nine extenſive governments, is now diſtributed into a larger number *, each upon an average containing only from

* The firſt provinces erected into governments, according to the new inſtitution, were Tver and Smolenſko, in January 1776. Thoſe which have been ſince eſtabliſhed, either before or during my reſidence in Ruſſia, were in the following order: Novogorod and Kaluga, in December 1776;

from 3 to 400,000 males. One or more of theſe governments is ſuperintended by a *Nameſtnick*, or lord-lieutenant, and each of them has a vice-governor, a council, civil and criminal courts of judicature, ſome of whoſe members are appointed by the ſovereign, and the others are choſen by the nobles. By this inſtitution Catharine has, in ſome inſtances, ſet bounds to her abſolute prerogative, by diminiſhing the power of thoſe tribunals which were only dependent upon the crown; by transferring it to the nobles; and inveſting them with many additional privileges with re-

1776; Pleſcof, Yaroſlaf, and Tula, in December 1777; Polotſk and Mohilef, in May 1778; Reſan, Volodimir, Koſtroma, and Orel, in December 1778.

By the lateſt accounts from Peterſburgh, the governments were ranged in the following manner.

1. Moſcow. 2. Peterſburgh. 3. Wiburgh. 4. Tver. 5. Novogorod. 6. Pleſkof. 7. Smolenſko. 8. Mohilef. 9. Polotſk. 10. Orel. 11. Kurſk. 12. Karkof. 13. Voronetz. 14. Tambof. 15. Reſan. 16. Tula. 17. Kaluga. 18. Yaroſlaf. 19. Vologda. 20. Vladimir. 21. Koſtroma. 22. Niſhnéi Novogorod. 23. Viatka. 24. Permia. 25. Tobolſk. 26. Kolyvan. 27. Irkutſk. 28. Ufa. 29. Simbirſk. 30. Caſan. 31. Penza. 32. Saratof. 33. Aſtracan. 34. Azof. 35. New-Ruſſia. 36. Little-Ruſſia. 37. Kiof. 38. Tchernigof. 39. Livonia, or Riga. 40. Eſthonia, or Reval. 41. Novogorod-Severſkoi. 42. Orenburgh.

ſpect

ſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice. As ſhe has introduced likewiſe into each government ſuperior tribunals, whoſe deciſion is final; ſhe has prevented, by theſe means, frequent appeals to the imperial colleges at Peterſburgh and Moſcow, which were attended with conſiderable expence and delay. By eſtabliſhing or ſeparating the different boards of finance, police, &c. from the courts of law, which before impeded each other by meeting in the ſame place; ſhe has facilitated the diſpatch of buſineſs, and rendered the adminiſtration of juſtice more ſpeedy. She has increaſed the ſalaries of the judges, who before, from the narrowneſs of their income, were neceſſarily expoſed to almoſt irreſiſtible temptations from bribery: or, to uſe her own expreſſions to the judges, in her celebrated edict, "Formerly "your neceſſities might have induced you to "be too attentive to your own intereſts: your "country now pays your labours; and what "before might admit of ſome excuſe, from "this moment becomes a crime."

To theſe regulations muſt be added the abolition of torture; the ſettling of the proper boundaries between the ſeveral governments, which has prevented many diſſentions and law-ſuits; the appointment of regular phyſicians

cians and ſurgeons, ſtationed in various diſtricts, at the crown's expence; the foundation of ſchools for the education of the nobility, others for children of perſons of inferior rank; the eſtabliſhment or augmentation of new ſeminaries for thoſe intended for holy orders; the erection of new bodies corporate with additional immunities; the grant of freedom to numberleſs vaſſals of the crown; and facilitating the means of giving liberty to the peaſants. But of all the plans formed by her majeſty for this purpoſe, there is none more uſeful and praiſe-worthy than that for the eſtabliſhment of ſchools in every government, formed on the moſt comprehenſive ſcale and liberal principles.

An academy is eſtabliſhed at St. Peterſburgh for the inſtruction of 200 ſtudents, deſigned to be maſters of the provincial ſchools. This academy is provided with profeſſors of hiſtory, mathematics, rhetoric, and natural hiſtory; with a German maſter, and a drawing maſter.

The ſtudents are ſelected from the different ſeminaries of the Ruſſian empire, and, as they have received their education as prieſts of the regular clergy, underſtand Latin. They are twenty years of age, and are to remain at Peterſburgh.

terſburgh three years; during which period they are inſtructed in hiſtory, geography, the various branches of natural philoſophy, and natural hiſtory. They are all boarded, lodged, and inſtructed at the empreſs's expence.

At the concluſion of this term their places are to be ſupplied by others, and they will be diſtributed in the different parts of Ruſſia. Two of theſe ſtudents will be eſtabliſhed in the principal town of each government; one as teacher of mathematics, the other of hiſtory, geography, and natural hiſtory. Each ſtudent, thus eſtabliſhed, is to inſtruct other ſtudents as preceptors of the ſmaller ſchools in the leſſer towns.

The regulation of this uſeful eſtabliſhment is entruſted to a committee conſiſting of five members, who have the ſuperintendance of the whole.

Thus the great ſchools in the principal towns will depend on the academy of Peterſburgh, and each ſchool in the ſmaller town on the principal ſchool in each government; a ſcheme which, if it can be carried into execution, will be moſt effectual in promoting the interior civilization of this vaſt empire. But it is to be feared, that theſe great plans of interior civilization and improvement have been

been interrupted by the expenſive war with Turkey and Sweden.

Such are the outlines of theſe excellent inſtitutions. How far, or in what degree, they may operate upon a people ſo widely diſperſed, and of ſuch different manners and cuſtoms, can only be proved by time and experience. But though they may fail in producing *all* thoſe advantages which from their intrinſic excellence the ſpeculative reaſoner might expect, yet they muſt be attended with the moſt beneficial effects; as indeed ſufficiently appears from the flouriſhing ſtate of thoſe provinces in which they have been already admitted. If it be allowed that many evils are reformed, and many improvements have been introduced; it cannot at the ſame time be ſuppoſed that the national manners ſhould be ſuddenly changed; or that the moſt abſolute ſovereign can venture to ſhake thoſe fundamental cuſtoms which have been ſanctioned by ages, and which oppoſe any violation even of thoſe rights that infringe the common principles of humanity. It is ſurely ſufficient if the abuſes are remedied, as much as can be expected in ſuch a country; where the vaſt diſproportion of rank and fortune, and the abſolute vaſſalage of the peaſants, render it extremely difficult, if not

impoſſible, to eſtabliſh at once an impartial and incorrupt adminiſtration of juſtice.

Ruſſia, with reſpect to the vaſt maſs of its people, is nearly in the ſame ſtate in which the greateſt part of Europe was plunged in the 11th and 12th centuries; when the feudal ſyſtem was gradually declining; when the unbounded authority of the land-holders over their ſlaves was beginning to be counterbalanced by the introduction of an intermediate order of merchants; when new towns were continually erecting, and endowed with increaſing immunities; and when the crown began to give freedom to many of its vaſſals.

CHAP.

CHAP. V.

Inquiry into the preſent ſtate of civilization in the Ruſſian *empire.—Diviſion of the inhabitants into I. Nobles, II. Clergy, III. Merchants and Burghers, IV. Peaſants.—General remarks on theſe orders.—Privileges granted by the empreſs to the merchants, burghers, and peaſants.—State of vaſſalage.—Concluſion.*

MUCH has been written concerning the great civilization which Peter I. introduced into this country; that he obliged the people to relinquiſh their beards, and their national dreſs; that he naturalized the arts and ſciences; that he diſciplined his army, and created a navy; and that he made a total change throughout each part of his extenſive empire. We may readily allow the truth of this eulogium with reſpect to his improvements in the diſcipline of his army and the creation of a navy; for theſe were objects within the reach of the perſevering genius of a deſpotic ſovereign: but the pompous accounts of the total change which he effected in the national

manners, ſeem to have been the mere echoes of foreigners, who have never viſited the country, and who have collected the hiſtory of Peter from the moſt partial information. For though a nation, when compared with itſelf at a former period, may have made a rapid progreſs towards improvement, even when the degree of that improvement, if put in competition with the refinements of other nations, ſeems ſcarcely to exiſt; yet, as the exaggerated accounts which I had heard and read of the great civilization diffuſed throughout the whole empire, made me expect a more poliſhed ſtate of manners than I found; I muſt own I was aſtoniſhed at the barbariſm in which the bulk of the people ſtill continue. I am ready to allow that the principal nobles are as civilized, and as refined in their entertainments, mode of living, and ſocial intercourſe, as thoſe of other European countries. But there is a wide difference between poliſhing a nation, and poliſhing a few individuals. The merchants and peaſants ſtill univerſally retain their beards, their national dreſs, their original manners; and, what is moſt remarkable, the greateſt part of the merchants and burghers of the large towns, even the citizens of Peterſburgh and Moſcow, reſemble, in their external appear-

ance

ance and general mode of living, the inhabitants of the ſmalleſt village: and, notwithſtanding the rigorous edicts iſſued by * Peter I, I can venture to aſſert, that the far greater number ſtill wear their beards; being ſcarcely leſs attached at preſent to that cuſtom than their anceſtors in former times, when the fine for cutting off a finger was rated at 1*s.* 3*d.*; that for cutting off the beard, or whiſkers, at 4*s.* 10*d.* †.

The greateſt part of the peaſants, who form the bulk of the nation, are ſtill almoſt as deficient in the arts as they were before Peter's time, although the ſciences have flouriſhed in

* " Il ordonna aux Ruſſes de quitter l'habit long et la " barbe. Une amende fut impoſée aux amateurs obſtinés " de l'ancien uſage. Bien des Ruſſes, et ſurtout les Roz- " kolniks, regardaient le changement d'habit comme un " renoncement à la religion, et diſaient qu'il valaient mieux " perdre la tête que la barbe: ils furent obligés de payer " un droit pour n'être pas raſés, et ils recevaient un jetton " qui leur ſervait de quittance. Souvent à la cour, on " énivrait les vieux boiars, et on leur taillait la barbe " d'une maniere ſi ridicule, qu'ils etaient obligés de garder " la chambre pendant pluſieurs mois, on de ſe faire raſer. " On attachait aux portes des villes un modelle du nouvel " habit, et on rognait la robe de ceux qui ne voulaient pas " payer: on les raſait malgré eux dans les rues." L'Eveſque, IV. p. 157.

† Haygold, I. p. 337.

the capital. But the civilization of a numerous and widely diſperſed people cannot be the work of a moment; and can only be effected by a gradual and almoſt inſenſible progreſs.

If we deſcend from theſe vague and general reflections to a more diſtinct conſideration of the different claſſes of ſubjects in the Ruſſian empire; we ſhall be more eaſily enabled to form ſome probable judgement concerning the preſent ſtate of its civilization.

The inhabitants in general may be divided into four orders:

I. That of the nobles and gentry.
II. That of the clergy.
III. That of merchants, burghers, and other freemen.
IV. That of the peaſants.

The three firſt include almoſt all the free ſubjects of the empire, and the latter all the vaſſals or ſlaves.

I. The firſt order comprehends the nobles and gentry: the ſole * perſons who, in the

* Catharine, in confirming the immunities of the noblees, decreed, "Que le droit d'acheter ou de vendre des "terres ſeroit propre ou particulier aux ſeuls nobles." Le Clerc, p. 472.

true

true ſpirit of feudal deſpotiſm, have a right to poſſeſs land; but inſtead of appearing, themſelves, according to the tenure of that ſyſtem, at the head of their retainers, are now only expected to ſerve in the army; and are obliged to furniſh recruits in proportion to the extent of their poſſeſſions.

In Ruſſia, as in the Oriental governments, there is ſcarcely any diſtinction of ranks among the nobility, excepting what is derived from the ſervice of the ſovereign. Even the eldeſt ſons of thoſe perſons, who have been raiſed to the moſt conſiderable honours and the higheſt employments, excepting the advantages which they undoubtedly retain of facilitating their promotion by a ready acceſs to court, do not derive any ſolid benefits from their birth; like thoſe which the peers of England, the grandees of Spain, or the dukes, who are peers of France, enjoy from their hereditary deſcent. The importance of a noble family of immenſe property and official honours, is almoſt annihilated upon the death of the chief; becauſe his property is equally divided among his ſons; and becauſe titles, though allowed to be hereditary, do not, independent of the ſovereign's favour *, contribute

* " A preſent en Ruſſie, indépendemment des avantages " que procurent par tout la fortune, ou la facilité de s'ap- " procher

tribute much to aggrandize the poſſeſſors: that of a prince, a count, or a baron, conveying in themſelves little perſonal diſtinction, unleſs accompanied with a civil or military employment.

Before the æra of Peter the Great, the only title in Ruſſia, excepting that of boyar, which ſignified privy-counſellor, and was not

" procher de la cour, un noble n'eſt diſtingué d'un autre " que par l'emploi qu'il occupe, et qui lui marque ſon rang. " Les titres, l'ancienneté de la nobleſſe, l'illuſtration de ſes " péres, n'empêchent pas celui à qui ſon emploi ne donne " que le rang de lieutenant, d'être même hors du ſervice " militaire, inferieur à un capitaine tiré de la plus nouvelle " nobleſſe, ou même de la claſſe des affranchis." L'Evêque, vol. iv. p. 479.

With reſpect to the advantages poſſeſſed by the children of the nobility, Le Clerc informs us, " Catharine II. en " confirmant les droits et priviléges que Pierre III. a ac- " cordées à la nobleſſe Ruſſe, y en a ajouté quatre autres. " 1. Elle a ordonné aux colonels des régimens, dans une " inſtruction particuliére, de préférer, dans tous les cas, les " nobles à ceux qui ne le ſont pas, dans la promotion des " grades militaires. 2. Elle a ſtatué que les enfans des " nobles, ainſi que ceux des officiers de l'état major, ſeroient " reçus préférablement à tous autres de ſes ſujets, dans les " établiſſemens d'éducation nationale. 3. Que le droit d'a- " cheter ou de vendre des terres ſeroient propre et parti- " culier aux ſeuls nobles. 4. Que les nobles de ſon em- " pire jouiroient du privilége excluſif d'etablir des fabriques " pour la diſtillation de l'eau-de-vie des grains, et de la " vendre à la Couronne." P. 472.

hereditary, and other ſimilar appellations annexed to civil employments, was that of knaes, which was eſteemed ſynonymous to prince. Perſons who aſſumed this title were deſcended, or pretended to be ſo, either from the different collateral branches of the reigning family; or from ſome Lithuanian princes who eſtabliſhed themſelves in Ruſſia in the 14th and 15th centuries; or from the numerous Tartar nobles who became ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire under Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. and his immediate ſucceſſors; or from ſeveral Poliſh, and other foreign families, who ſettled in this empire. In proceſs of time the number of theſe princes increaſed to ſo conſiderable a degree; that, according to Lord Whitworth, no leſs than 300 were common ſoldiers in prince Mentchikof's regiment of dragoons. Though Peter the Great, in imitation of the other European courts, introduced the titles of count and baron, and his example has been followed by his ſucceſſors; yet neither theſe titles, nor that of prince above mentioned, have been eſteemed a ſufficient aggrandizement; becauſe the greateſt favourites of the ſovereign have been occaſionally created by the emperor of Germany princes of the German empire; as prince Mentchikof

Mentchikof at the requeſt of Peter, and the princes Orlof and Potemkin during the preſent reign.

According to the ſyſtem introduced by Peter I, but which has gradually been corrupted as it has receded from its ſource, every perſon takes precedence from his military ſtation; he muſt riſe in regular gradation, and, before he can be an officer, muſt have ſerved as a corporal or ſerjeant: but this ordinance is eaſily eluded; as frequently infants are made ſerjeants and corporals; and it is not neceſſary to have ſerved even one campaign in order to obtain precedence, as it may be conferred by civil offices. And although the law of Peter I. which compelled each nobleman or gentleman, under pain of degradation, to ſerve in the army, was aboliſhed by Peter III*; yet its effects ſtill ſubſiſt. No one under the rank

* The Abbé de Chappe, in a remark upon the aboli-tion of this law by Peter III. is guilty of a ridiculous miſtake, when he ſuppoſes, that before this decree the nobles were *ſlaves*. About a week after his acceſſion to the throne, Peter went to the ſenate, and declared, "that he "had granted the privilege of *freedom* to the nobility." This miſtake aroſe from an omiſſion in his decree, in which the nobles were only *declared free*, without the addition of *to ſerve, or not to ſerve, as they thought proper*. See Antidote, p. 148 to 150.

of a major, let his fortune be ever ſo conſiderable, is permitted to drive more than two horſes; under that of brigadier, more than four: a nobleman of the higheſt fortune and diſtinction, who has never been in the army, is not allowed, excepting by the ſpecial permiſſion of the crown, to uſe in the capital a carriage drawn by more than one horſe; while a merchant may have two. There are various methods, however, of procuring military dignity, and the privileges annexed to it. Amongſt others, a chamberlain, for inſtance, to the ſovereign, *ranks* as major-general; the office of a ſecretary, in the different departments of government, confers the *rank* of an officer; and the contributor of a certain ſum to the foundling-hoſpital at Moſcow, obtains the *rank* of a lieutenant. Theſe regulations, and the eaſe with which military *rank* is acquired, has induced a German, ſettled in Ruſſia, to expreſs himſelf with ſome humour in the following manner: "A nobleman is here nothing; "his ſituation in the army alone marks the "value of his exiſtence. A phyſician has the "*rank* of major, and dares, as a ſtaff-officer, "put four horſes to his carriage, while others "can only drive two; an apothecary in the "imperial ſervice has the *rank* of a captain;

"his

" his apprentices that of enſigns; and the two " ſurgeons of the diſtrict bear the *rank* of " lieutenants *." But however ridiculous theſe promotions may appear, yet they are founded on principles of the ſoundeſt policy: for as, by a decree of Peter the Great, every officer is noble during his life, and the children of a ſtaff-officer are claſſed among the nobility; any inſtitution tending to increaſe the number of this order of men, who alone are entitled to poſſeſs land, cannot fail of being highly beneficial to the ſociety. Upon their own eſtates the nobles and gentry are almoſt uncontrouled, having abſolute authority over their vaſſals, as will be ſhewn when I treat of the peaſants.

II. The next order of ſubjects is the Clergy.

I have already had occaſion to mention the origin and ſuppreſſion of the office of patriarch, who was formerly the head of the Ruſſian clergy. Peter I. finally aboliſhed that dignity in 1719; but, inſtead of formally declaring himſelf the head of the church, he prudently conſigned the chief eccleſiaſtical authority to a tribunal which he called the Sa-

* Schloetzer's Briefwechſel for 1781, p. 365.

cred

cred Synod; but which was in effect rendered abſolutely ſubſervient to him, by an oath taken by all its members, acknowledging him as their ſupreme judge. The ſynod is compoſed of the ſovereign, who is preſident; a vice-preſident, who is generally the metropolitan archbiſhop; and a number of counſellors and aſſeſſors.

The clergy are divided into, 1. Regular; and 2. Secular: the firſt are monks; and the latter, pariſh prieſts.

1. The principal wealth of the church is centered in the monaſteries, which formerly had eſtates to the amount of £. 400,000 per annum; and, like the other land-holders, enjoyed uncontrouled authority over their peaſants, who were equally bondſmen as on the poſſeſſions of the laity. The preſent empreſs has annexed theſe church-lands to the crown; and in return grants annual penſions to the hierarchy, the dignified clergy, and the monks. The archbiſhops and biſhops receive about £. 1,000 or £. 1,200 per annum; and the ſubordinate eccleſiaſtics in proportion. Soon after this regulation took place, many of the monaſteries were ſuppreſſed; and the members in thoſe which were ſpared, were conſiderably reduced; as well by the prohibition to admit more

more than a certain number, as by limiting the age of noviciates. The abolition of monaſteries muſt be acknowledged a very beneficial circumſtance in moſt countries; yet there is one evil to be apprehended from it in Ruſſia: they were the only ſeminaries of education for thoſe perſons deſigned for the ſacred function; and the monks are, if I may ſo expreſs myſelf, almoſt the ſole proprietors of the learning which ſubſiſts among the clergy. But, moſt probably, the ill effects which may be expected from the ſuppreſſion of ſome convents, will be compenſated by the better improvementi ntroduced into the adminiſtration of thoſe which are continued; and by the ſchools lately eſtabliſhed in various parts of the empire for the education of eccleſiaſtics.

All the dignitaries of the church are choſen from the order of monks: theſe are archbiſhops and biſhops, archimandrites or abbots, and igoomens or priors. "The epiſcopal or-"der in Ruſſia is diſtinguiſhed by the different "titles of metropolitan, archbiſhop, and bi-"ſhop. The tides of metropolitan and arch-"biſhop are not attached to the ſee; but are, "at preſent, merely perſonal diſtinctions con-"ferred by the ſovereign, which give the poſ-"ſeſſors no additional power, and ſcarcely "any

"any precedence *." The archbiſhoprics or biſhoprics are thirty-three in number. 1. Novogorod. 2. Moſcow. 3. Peterſburgh. 4. Caſan. 5. Aſtracan. 6. Tobolſk. 7. Roſtof. 8. Pleſkof. 9. Kratitz. 10. Reſan. 11. Tver. 12. Slavenſk and Kherſon. 13. Mohilef. 14. Smolenſko. 15. Niſhnei-Novogorod. 16. Bielgorod. 17. Suſdal. 18. Vologda. 19. Columna. 20. Viatſk. 21. Archangel. 22. Uſtyug. 23. Voronetz. 24. Irkutſk. 25. Pereſlaf. 26. Coſtroma. 27. Volodimir. 28. Tambof. 29. Olonetz. 30. Sievſk. 31. Kiof. 32. Tchernigof. 33. Pereaſlavl.

Ruſſia contains at preſent 159 monaſteries, governed by 58 archimandrites and 99 igoomens; and 67 nunneries, ſuperintended by abbeſſes. There are 2,677 monks, and 1,299 nuns. The other prieſts and eccleſiaſtics belonging to the nunneries and cathedrals are 1,537 †.

2. The

* Dr. King on the Greek Church, p. 272.

† According to a liſt of the religious eſtabliſhments, printed in the Journal of St. Peterſburgh in 1776, there were 460 monaſteries, and 20,535 churches. According to Buſching, Ruſſia contained 479 convents, and 79 nunneries, without reckoning ſeveral ſmall monaſteries dependent upon the larger ones; in all which were 7,300 monks, and 5,300 nuns. Perhaps this was the ſtate be-

2. The Ruſſian pariſh-prieſts are called papas, or popes; a word ſignifying father, and indiſcriminately applied in the early ages of Chriſtianity to all eccleſiaſtics without diſtinction, until it was confined to the biſhop of Rome by an edict of Gregory VII. But though this order was obeyed by the members of the Latin or Roman Catholic church; yet it was not acceded to by thoſe of the Greek communion; and the prieſts of that perſuaſion are ſtill diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of pope.

The parochial clergy, who may and ought to be the moſt uſeful members of ſociety, are generally in Ruſſia the very refuſe of the people. It is literally true, that many of them cannot even read *, in their own language, the Goſpel which they are commiſſioned to preach; but deliver from memory the ſervice, a chapter of the New Teſtament, or part of a homily, which they repeat every Friday and Sunday. Nor is it in the leaſt ſurpriſing that

fore the ſuppreſſion of many of them. I have adopted the account by Le Clerc, becauſe he informs us, "*Cet état exact vient de l'imperatrice même.*" See Hiſt. An. de la Ruſſ. p. 261.

* This ſhameful ignorance is certainly leſs common than formerly; as the biſhops are more cautious in ordaining ſuch improper perſons.

ſome are ſo illiterate, when we conſider the ſcanty maintenance which they derive from their profeſſion. Beſide the ſurplice fees, which in the pooreſt benefices amount to £. 4 per annum, and in the moſt profitable to but £. 20; they have only a wooden houſe, ſcarcely ſuperior to that of the meaneſt among their pariſhioners, and a ſmall portion of land, which they uſually cultivate with their own hands. While the higheſt dignity to which they can ever attain, as long as they continue married, is that of protopope of a cathedral, whoſe income ſcarcely exceeds £. 20 a year. As the pariſh-prieſts are undoubtedly the principal ſources from which learning and improvement muſt be generally diffuſed among the lower claſs of people; if they, who ought to inſtruct and enlighten others, are ſo ignorant, how groſs muſt be the ignorance of their pariſhioners! In no inſtance, perhaps, has the empreſs contributed more towards civilizing her people, than in inſtituting various ſeminaries for the children of prieſts; in endeavouring to promote among the clergy a zeal for liberal ſcience; and to rouſe them from that profound ignorance in which they are plunged*.

The

* An inſtance of her majeſty's zeal in this particular fell under my obſervation. When I viſited the preſs of

The monks are not permitted to marry, while the pariſh-prieſts are compelled to take a wife as a preliminary to ordination, as I have remarked on a former occaſion*: if their wives happen to die, they may enter into a convent, and become dignitaries of the church. They cannot engage in a ſecond marriage unleſs they become laymen; neither can they continue pariſh-prieſts without the expreſs permiſſion of a biſhop. The children of the ſecular clergy are all free; their ſons are uſually brought up for orders, or employed in the ſervice of the church.

All the clergy wear long beards, and are diſtinguiſhed from the laity by ſuffering their hair to ſtream for a conſiderable length over their ſhoulders, without being tied or curled. Their dreſs is a ſquare bonnet, and a long robe of a black or dark colour, reaching to their ankles: the ſecular and regular prieſts uſe, in

the Holy Synod at Moſcow, three volumes of ſermons were printing in the Ruſſian tongue: they were tranſlations, by the empreſs's command, from the beſt Engliſh, French, and German authors, of thoſe principally which contained a clear diſcuſſion of the moral duties. They were to be diſtributed among the parochial clergy, who had orders to read them occaſionally in the time of divine ſervice.

* See Vol. I. Book III. Chap. II.

ſome

ſome inſtances, a different habit; and the dignitaries of the church are diſtinguiſhed by a more coſtly ſpecies of raiment *.

I cannot forbear mentioning, that, during the five months we paſſed at Peterſburgh, and the almoſt conſtant intercourſe in which we were daily engaged with the nobility and gentry, I never once ſaw in company a ſingle perſon of the ſacred profeſſion. It muſt be allowed, indeed, that the pariſh-prieſts are, for the moſt part, too low and ignorant to be qualified for admiſſion into genteel ſocieties; while the dignitaries, being a ſeparate order, and reſtrained by ſeveral ſtrict regulations, reſide chiefly in their palaces within the monaſteries; and contract an averſion, perhaps an unfitneſs, for ſocial intercourſe. This general character of the Ruſſian hierarchy does by no means comprehend all the individuals; as ſome of them, with whom I occaſionally converſed, were men of liberal manners and enlightened underſtandings †.

* See prints of the ſeveral eccleſiaſtical dreſſes in King's State of the Greek Church in Ruſſia.

† The dignitaries occaſionally dine at the tables of the nobility upon days of great ceremony, as on that of St. Alexander Nevſki, when I met the archbiſhop of Roſtof at prince Volkonſki's. See Vol. I. Book III. Chap. II.

III. The third diviſion of Ruſſian ſubjects comprehends that intermediate claſs of men between the nobles and peaſants, which is thus defined by the empreſs, in the 16th chapter of her inſtructions for the new code of laws.

" Cette claſſe d'hommes, dignes que nous " en faſſions mention, et dont l'etat peut ſe " promettre de grands avantages, quand elle " aura reçu une forme ſtable, et qui ait pour " but l'encouragement des bonnes mœurs et " l'amour de travail, c'eſt l'etat Mitoyen.

" Cet etat compoſé d'hommes libres n'ap- " partient ni à la claſſe des nobles, ni à celle " des payſans.

" On doit ranger dans cette claſſe tous ceux " qui, ſans être ni gentilhommes ni payſans, " s'occupent des arts, des ſciences, de la navi- " gation, du commerce, ou exercent des me- " tiers.

" On doit y placer encore tous ceux, qui " nés de parens roturiers, ſortiront des ecoles " et maiſons d'education, réligieuſes ou au- " tres, fondées par nous ou par nos prede- " ceſſeurs.

" De même, les enfans des officiers et ecri- " vains de chancellerie. Mais comme ce tiers " etat eſt ſuſceptible de different degrés de pre- " rogatives, dont nous ne voulons pas traiter

" en

" en detail, nous ne ferons que d'ouvrir ici le " champ à un plus ample examen *."

Although, previous to the reign of Peter the Great, there had been certain bodies of merchants, enjoying peculiar privileges which raiſed them above the condition of peaſants; yet theſe were few, and their advantages, conſidering the immenſe monopolies which were in the hands of the crown, and the oppreſſion which they neceſſarily laboured under from

* Inſtruction, &c. pour le Nouveau Code des Loix, p. 107.

" This claſs of men, worthy to be mentioned by us, and " from whom the ſtate may promiſe itſelf great advan- " tages, when it ſhall have received a ſtable form, and " which has for its end the encouragement of good mo- " rals and the love of induſtry, is the middle ſtate.

" This ſtate, compoſed of freemen, belongs neither to " the claſs of nobles nor to that of peaſants.

" All thoſe who, being neither gentlemen nor peaſants, " follow the arts and ſciences, navigation, commerce, or " exerciſe trades, are to be ranked in this claſs.

" In this claſs ſhould be placed all thoſe who, born of " plebeian parents, ſhall have been brought up in ſchools " or places of education, religious or others, founded by " us, or by our predeceſſors.

" Alſo the children of officers, and of the ſecretaries to " the chancery. But as this third eſtate is ſuſceptible of " different degrees of privileges, which we do not mean to " detail in this place, we ſhall only here open the way for " a more ample examination."

the power of the great, extremely precarious. Peter, who during his travels into foreign countries had perceived the utility and neceſſity of a third eſtate for the purpoſes of commerce, made many regulations with this view, which, though excellent in themſelves, yet not being adapted to the ſtate of property in Ruſſia, did not in general anſwer the end propoſed. Among the moſt beneficial of theſe regulations muſt be mentioned, that he endowed ſome free towns with certain privileges, which were afterwards augmented by Elizabeth. But theſe privileges were confined to Peterſburgh, Moſcow, Aſtracan, Tver, and a few other great provincial towns; and all the inhabitants, even merchants not excepted, were, in ſome caſes, upon the ſame footing with the peaſants, particularly in two inſtances, which are conſidered in this country as indelible marks of ſervitude: they were ſubject to the poll-tax, and to be draughted for the army and navy. Her preſent majeſty has exempted the body of merchants from theſe two odious inſtances of ſervitude; has greatly increaſed the number and immunities of the free towns; and has permitted many of the crown-peaſants, and every free man, to enrol himſelf, under ſtipulated conditions, into the claſs of merchants

merchants or burghers, who form the third order of inhabitants now under conſideration.

The merchants are diſtributed into three claſſes. The firſt comprehends thoſe who have a capital of £. 2,000; the ſecond thoſe who poſſeſs £. 1,000; and the third thoſe who are worth £. 100. By the 47th article of the celebrated manifeſto of Graces, as it is called, which the empreſs conferred upon her ſubjects at the concluſion of the Turkiſh war in 1775; all perſons who chuſe to enter themſelves in any of theſe claſſes are exempted from the poll-tax, upon condition of paying annually one per cent. of their capital employed in trade to the crown *. The extent of their capitals, however,

* A literal tranſlation of this remarkable article is here ſubjoined. "The inhabitants of towns who do not poſſeſs "a capital of 500 roubles, £. 100, and merchants declared "inſolvent, ſhall be excluded from the body of merchants, "and ſhall be claſſed among the burghers. On the con- "trary, all burghers, who by their induſtry have acquired "the ſum of 500 roubles, ſhall be admitted into the body "of merchants. This body ſhall remain divided as before "into three claſſes, in proportion to their capital; they "ſhall pay an annual aſſeſſment of one per cent. of their "capital, which they declare is employed in trade, in con- "ſideration whereof they are exempted from the poll-tax. "The burghers continue upon the ſame footing as be- "fore."

Alſo,

however, is not rigorouſly inquired into, for it entirely depends upon the merchants to name the oſtenſible ſum which they are ſuppoſed to be worth; as a perſon poſſeſſing above £. 2,000 may enrol himſelf in any of the inferior claſſes, or even in that of the burghers, if he chuſes to pay the poll-tax rather than one per cent. of his capital, and be entitled to no more privileges than they enjoy.

This alteration in the mode of aſſeſſing merchants is productive of great advantages both to the crown and to the ſubjects; the former receives, and the latter cheerfully pay, one per cent. of their capital, as well becauſe they are by that means exempted from the poll-tax, as becauſe they are alſo entitled to additional immunities. It is alſo a juſt impoſt, as each merchant pays according to his fortune: if his profits increaſe, his aſſeſſment increaſes; if they diminiſh, his contribution proportionably diminiſhes. With reſpect to the general intereſts of the nation, it muſt be conſidered as a maſter-piece of judgment and ſound policy. It excites induſtry, by holding up to the peo-

Alſo, in the 46th article, "We permit all perſons, "franchiſed by their lords, to chuſe the free towns in which "they wiſh to reſide, and to enrol themſelves either among "the merchants or burghers of that town," &c.

ple

ple a principle of honour, as well as of intereſt, to be derived from the augmentation of their capital; and it affords an additional ſecurity from arbitrary impoſitions, by pledging the good faith of government in the protection of their property. It is likewiſe productive of another very eſſential public benefit, by creating, as it were, a third eſtate *; which, as it increaſes in wealth, in credit, and in importance, muſt by degrees acquire additional privileges, and gradually riſe into conſequence and independence.

The burghers form the ſecond diviſion of

* Monteſquieu obſerves, that there is no *third eſtate* in Ruſſia, and that the natives are either nobles or ſlaves; an aſſertion which is contradicted by Monſ. Le Clerc, who ſhows that there is undoubtedly, and always has been, in Ruſſia, a certain deſcription of perſons neither nobles nor ſlaves. Hiſt. Mod. p. 223. But Monteſquieu has certainly expreſſed himſelf correctly upon an extenſive view of the ſubject, as Le Clerc is right in the detail. For though there were ſome ſubjects neither nobles nor ſlaves, yet as their number was extremely limited, and as, when Monteſquieu wrote, they did not enjoy thoſe privileges which they now poſſeſs, they could not be ſaid to conſtitute a *third eſtate*, according to the ſenſe of that term in other European countries.

The definition of this intermediate order of men by the empreſs, ſo late as 1767, ſufficiently proves that it had not *une forme ſtable.*

this

this order: the term burghers is applied to all inhabitants of free towns, without any reference to their peculiar trade, who declare that they poſſeſs a capital leſs than £. 100; or who, having that ſum, do not chuſe to aſſume the more honourable name of merchants. They poſſeſs many privileges ſuperior to the peaſants; but are diſtinguiſhed from the merchants by being ſtill ſubject to the poll-tax, and to enrolment in the army or navy.

Under this third order muſt be included all the other free ſubjects of the empire; namely, thoſe ſlaves who have received their liberty from their maſters; thoſe who have obtained their diſmiſſion from the army and navy; the members of the Academy of Arts, and of other ſimilar inſtitutions; orphans from the Foundling-hoſpital; and, laſtly, the children of all theſe freemen. All theſe perſons have permiſſion to ſettle and carry on trade or commerce in any part of the empire; may enrol themſelves among the burghers of any free town; and, if they have a ſufficient capital, are admitted into the order of merchants. By all theſe wiſe regulations, the number of perſons above ſlaves will gradually increaſe; and muſt in time form a very conſiderable order of

men,

men, as ſoon as they ſhall acquire the right of poſſeſſing land.

It is a circumſtance not unworthy of remark, that the Ruſſian merchants and tradeſmen ſeldom keep any book of accounts, as few of them can either read or write, and are unacquainted with the knowledge of figures. Their manner of reckoning is by a kind of machine, with ſeveral rows of wires, upon which beads are ſtrung. The beads upon the firſt row ſtand for units, thoſe upon the ſecond for tens, upon the third for hundreds, on the fourth for thouſands, and in a ſimilar progreſſion. By means of this machine they ſubtract, multiply, and divide with great exactneſs. An exception, among a few others, to this general obſervation, ſhould be mentioned. The moſt honeſt and intelligent perſons of this order are the inhabitants of Archangel and its environs: they are moſtly able to write, read, and caſt accounts; and many of them are much employed at Peterſburgh by the members of the Britiſh factory to ſuperintend their warehouſes; and they have the general character of faithful and induſtrious ſervants. It may, perhaps, be difficult to account for the peculiar circumſtances which may have concurred to render the inhabitants of the town and environs of Archangel more intelligent than

than the other Ruſſians, unleſs the following cauſe ſhould be thought ſufficient. Archangel, from the time of its firſt diſcovery by the Engliſh in 1554, was, during a conſiderable period, the great emporium of Ruſſia; many of the inhabitants, therefore, being connected with foreign merchants, who required great exactneſs in all their dealings, were gradually trained to buſineſs. By a kind of local enthuſiaſm and traditional inſtruction, they have continued to diſtinguiſh themſelves among their ignorant and leſs honeſt countrymen, by applying themſelves to underſtand the common rudiments of arithmetic, and by a diligent and regular diſcharge of their truſt.

IV. The fourth order of ſubjects comprehends the peaſants.

The peaſants of Ruſſia, a few excepted *, are

* I am not able to aſcertain the number and privileges of thoſe peaſants who are free. Monſ. Le Clerc thus enumerates them:

1. " Il y a une claſſe de ſujets naturel, qui ne ſont ni " nobles ni ſerfs; on les appelle *odnovortſi*. Ce ſont des " payſans libres, qui poſſedent des terres en propre, qui " les cultivent eux-mêmes, ou les font cultiver par les " autres."

Buſching ſays of theſe people: " The *odnovortſi*" (which appellation ſignifies a perſon who poſſeſſes only one houſe) " are a kind of intermediate ſubjects" (for they can hardly be

are all ſerfs, or ſlaves *. They may be divided into, 1. Peaſants of the crown. 2. Peaſants belonging to individuals.

1. The

be called peaſants) " between the nobles and ſlaves. They " are independent of the nobility, and have themſelves no " dependents: but ſeveral have, by little and little, pur- " chaſed peaſants, not in their own name, but under thoſe " of ſome nobles. In the reign of Anne, a great number " of theſe perſons were tranſplanted towards the boundaries " of the Ukraine and Sakamſki, and ſupplied a national mi- " litia for the defence of the limits. Some dwell upon the " banks of the Occa, in the government of Moſcow; but " the greateſt part are ſettled in the governments of Biel- " gorod and Voronetz." Buſ. Erd. Beſ. Vol. I. P. I. p. 635.

2. Le Clerc adds, " Il eſt encore d'autres payſans qui " ne fourniſſent point à l'entretien de la Lande Milice, ou " des troupes qui gardent les frontières, et qui payent à la " Coûronne, pour redevances annuelles et par tête, deux " roubles ſoixante dix copecs. Ils ſont au nombre de " 24,991. Outre ceux-ci, il y en a 532,948, également " libres, qui payent une redevance d'un rouble ſoixante dix " copecs, et qui fourniſſent à l'entretien des troupes." Hiſt. Mod. de Ruſſie, p. 223.

In another place he ſays, " Les payſans qui habitent aux " environs d'Arkangel, ont des terres en propre, qu'ils peu- " vent hypothéquer, vendre et léguer." P. 222.

The yamſhicks, or perſons who furniſh poſt-horſes, may be reckoned among the freer kind of peaſants, as they are exempted from the poll-tax, and from being enliſted. See Vol. I. of this work, Book III. Chap. I.

* In the former editions of this work, and according to the ſtate of the peaſants in 1779, I had the ſatisfaction of adding

1. The former inhabit the imperial demeſnes; and probably comprehend, including thoſe belonging to the church lands, which are now annexed to the crown, about the ſixth part of the Ruſſian peaſants. They are immediately under the juriſdiction of the imperial officers or bailiffs. Although liable to great exactions, by the tenure of their ſubjection, from theſe petty tyrants, yet they are much more ſecure of their property; and being under the protection of the ſovereign, any flagrant inſtances of oppreſſion are more eaſily

adding to this liſt of free peaſants, thoſe of the Ukraine or Ruſſian Finland, who preſerved a conſiderable degree of freedom until the late extenſion of the poll-tax has reduced them almoſt to a level with the reſt. For by ſubjecting them to that aſſeſſment the empreſs has unconſciouſly counteracted the general principle which had hitherto been the chief object of her reign, that of gradually extending the privileges and freedom of the lower claſs of people. By introducing among the peaſants of the Ukraine, or Ruſſian Finland, a tax, which is conſidered as a badge of ſlavery, ſhe has been reduced to the neceſſity of rendering theſe ſerfs, or *glebæ adſcripti*, who were before free peaſants, from the impolitic law, which is the unavoidable conſequence of the poll-tax, in a country wherein the nobles can alone poſſeſs landed property, that of making the landholder anſwerable for the aſſeſſment of his peaſants; as under that circumſtance he muſt have the power of preventing their migration.

made known and redreſſed. Many of theſe vaſſals, in particular diſtricts, have been franchiſed, and permitted to enrol themſelves among the merchants and burghers: the whole body will gradually receive more and more privileges, as the ſpirit of humanity and policy penetrates further into theſe regions; and as the empreſs can venture to realize the generous ſyſtem of diffuſing a more equal freedom among the ſubjects of her vaſt empire.

2. Peaſants belonging to individuals are the private property of the landholders, as much as implements of agriculture, or herds of cattle; and the value of an eſtate is eſtimated, as in Poland, by the number of boors, and not by the number of acres. No regulations have, perhaps, tended more to rivet the ſhackles of ſlavery in this empire, than the two laws of Peter the Great; one which renders the landholder accountable to the crown for the poll-tax of his vaſſals; and the other which obliges him to furniſh a certain number of recruits: for by theſe means he becomes extremely intereſted, that none of his peaſants migrate without permiſſion from the place of their nativity. Theſe circumſtances occaſion a ſtriking difference in the fate of the Ruſſian and Poliſh peaſants, even in fa-

vour of the latter, who in other reſpects are more wretched. If the Poliſh boor is oppreſſed, and he eſcapes to another maſter, the latter is liable to no pecuniary penalty for harbouring him; but in Ruſſia the perſon who receives another's vaſſal is ſubject to an heavy fine. With reſpect to his own demands upon his peaſants, the lord is reſtrained by no law, either in the exaction of any ſum, or in the mode of employing them. He is abſolute maſter of their time and labour: ſome he employs in agriculture: a few he makes his menial ſervants, and perhaps without wages; and from others he exacts an annual payment *.

* The empreſs thus expreſſes herſelf on this head:

" Il n'y a guere de village, qui ne paye ſes redevances " en argent. Les poſſeſſeurs, qui ne voyent jamais ou que " très rarement leurs villages, impoſent chaque tête à un " à deux et juſqu'à cinq roubles, ſans s'embaraſſer com- " ment le payſan s'y prendra pour gagner cet argent.

" Il ſeroit trés neceſſaire de preſcrire aux poſſeſſeurs des " Loix qui les obligent à agir avec plus de circonſpection " dans la maniere dont ils ſe font payer leurs droits, et à " exiger du payſan des redevances qui ſoient de nature à " l'eloigner le moins qu'il ſera poſſible de ſa maiſon et de " ſa famille. Par ce moyen l'on mettra l'agriculture en " vigueur, et la population augmentera dans l'empire." Inſtruction, &c. p. 79.

This cuſtom of obliging the peaſants to pay an annual ſum in money, without their having always ſufficient reſources to procure that ſum, frequently drives the neceſſitous to the moſt deſperate modes of acquiring it.

Each vaſſal, therefore, is rated according to the arbitrary will of his maſter. Some contribute four or five ſhillings a year; others, who are engaged in traffic or trade, are aſſeſſed in proportion to their ſuppoſed profits. Several inſtances of theſe exactions fell under my obſervation: a maſon, who was rated £. 6 per annum; a ſmith £. 12; and others as high as £. 20. With regard to any capital which they may have acquired by their induſtry, it may be ſeized, and there can be no redreſs; as, according to the old feudal law, which ſtill exiſts, a ſlave cannot inſtitute a proceſs againſt his maſter. Hence it occaſionally happens, that ſeveral peaſants, who have gained a large capital, cannot purchaſe their liberty for any ſum; becauſe they are ſubject, as long as they continue ſlaves, to be pillaged by their maſters.

The mode adopted by many landholders with their peaſants, reminds me of that formerly practiſed by the Romans in regard to their ſlaves. Atticus, we are told, cauſed a numerous body of ſlaves to be inſtructed in the art of copying manuſcripts, which he ſold at a very high price, and raiſed by that means a conſiderable fortune. Upon ſimilar principles ſome of the Ruſſian nobility ſend their vaſſals

to Moſcow or Peterſburgh for the purpoſe of learning various handicraft trades: they either employ them on their own eſtates; let them out for hire; ſell them at an advanced price; or receive from them an annual compenſation for the permiſſion of exerciſing trade for their own advantage.

In regard to the lord's authority over their perſons, according to the ancient laws, he might try them in his own courts of juſtice, or puniſh them without any proceſs; he could inflict every ſpecies of penalty excepting the knoot, order them to be whipped, or confined in dungeons; he might ſend them to houſes of correction, or baniſh them into Siberia; or, in ſhort, take cognizance of every miſdemeanor which was not a public offence. He had, indeed, no power over their lives; for, if a ſlave was beat by order of his maſter, and died within the ſpace of three days, the latter was guilty of murder, unleſs other reaſons could be aſſigned for his demiſe. But was not this almoſt a mockery of juſtice? for ſurely a man might be terribly chaſtiſed without ſuffering death within *three days*; and if a vaſſal died within that ſpace, and his maſter was a man of conſequence, who was to bring him

to

to juſtice *? By the new regulations, this enormous power of the lords is reduced by reſtrictions more conſonant to the humane principles which diſtinguiſh all the regulations of the preſent empreſs; and the right of inflicting puniſhment is lodged, where it ever ought to be, in the hands of the public magiſtrate. Abuſes, however, ſtill ſubſiſt; but muſt, in time, yield to the influence of ſuch ſalutary inſtitutions.

I am far from aſſerting, that inhumanity is the general characteriſtic of the Ruſſian nobility; or that there are not many perſons who treat their vaſſals with the utmoſt benevolence and juſtice. I am alſo well aware, that ſeveral peaſants are in ſuch a flouriſhing condition as

* How often muſt ſuch tyrannies eſcape the cognizance of the court, and remain unpuniſhed! Sometimes, indeed, a noble is brought to juſtice. One inſtance, though related in a former publication, I beg leave to introduce in this place.

"In the priſon of Moſcow there is a gentleman confined, "and he alone is denied the privilege of ever coming from "his cell; a puniſhment which is by no means adequate "to his crime; namely, that of ordering ſeveral of his peaſants to be whipped in ſo cruel a manner, that they died. "This circumſtance will ſhow the power which the lords "have over their peaſants; and will at the ſame time prove, "that ſuch crimes, when diſcovered, do not always remain "unpuniſhed." Account of Priſons, &c. p. 12.

to have formed very conſiderable capitals without dread of exaction; and that ſome even poſſeſs landed eſtates under their maſters names. But if we conſider the unhappy pleaſure which too many feel in tyrannizing over their inferiors; we have every reaſon to conclude, that the generality of boors muſt ſtill be cruelly oppreſſed. It has been ably obſerved, by a very judicious writer, that "as much as ſubjection to a petty prince, whoſe dominions extend not beyond a ſingle city, is more grievous than obedience to a great monarch, ſo much is domeſtic ſlavery more cruel and oppreſſive than any civil ſubjection whatſoever." The ſame author alſo adds the following remark, which will equally apply in the preſent caſe: "Nor can a more probable reaſon be imagined for the ſevere, I might ſay barbarous, manners of ancient times, than the practice of domeſtic ſlavery; by which every man of rank was rendered a petty tyrant, and educated amongſt the flattery, ſubmiſſion, and low debaſement of his ſlaves *." How then can a country be ſaid to be civilized, in which domeſtic ſlavery ſtill exiſts?

* Hume's Eſſays, Vol. I. p. 402.

The

The vaſſals who work for their maſters, generally receiving their maintenance, or being accommodated with a ſmall portion of land for their own uſe, always enjoy in ſufficient abundance the common neceſſaries of life, which are ſo few as to be eaſily obtained; and uſually ſpend any little money they are able to acquire in clothes or ſpirituous liquors. Thoſe who, in contradiction to this general rule, ſave the profits which they may have earned by their labour, or by their trade, conceal as much as poſſible any acquiſition of fortune; they ſeldom change their mode of living, and frequently bury their money in the ground. This cuſtom is one reaſon, among ſeveral others, of the ſcarcity of ſilver currency; that being the ſpecie which is chiefly amaſſed. The practice of hiding money is common in all countries of the Eaſt, where property is not well ſecured; and where the people are in ſuch a ſtate of ſlavery, that, through dread of repeated exactions, they cannot even venture to uſe the riches which they have acquired: nevertheleſs, they are remarkably greedy of gain; and perhaps there are no tradeſmen who demand ſo much for their goods, and will take ſo little, as the Ruſſians;—a ſure proof of continual oppreſſions.

The peaſants are not to be pitied for the want of any little indulgences, which are eſteemed in other nations the common neceſſaries of life; uſe reconciles them to ſuch deficiencies: but they deſerve compaſſion for their ſubjection to their maſters. The former only makes them hardy, patient, and eaſily contented; but the latter renders them humble, cringing, obſtinate, careleſs, and in a manner inſenſible.

A peaſant may obtain his liberty, 1. by manumiſſion, which, upon the death of the maſter, is frequently granted to thoſe who have ſerved in the capacity of his immediate domeſtics; 2. by purchaſe; 3. by ſerving in the army or navy; for a peaſant is free from the moment of his enrolment, and continues ſo whenever he obtains his diſcharge: and in all theſe caſes the empreſs has facilitated the means of obtaining freedom, by waving ſeveral rights of the crown, which, in ſome meaſure, obſtructed this acquiſition of liberty. Although her majeſty cannot alter the fundamental ſtate of property, by conferring upon the peaſants, as individuals, any material privileges which might infringe thoſe of the nobles; yet ſhe has not neglected their intereſts, but has iſſued ſeveral laws in their favour,

favour, which have given them ſome alleviation. By allowing them to ſettle in any part of her dominions, and to enrol themſelves among the burghers or merchants, according to their reſpective capitals, ſhe has given a ſtability to their freedom; and afforded the ſtrongeſt incitements for the exertions of induſtry. She has repealed thoſe oppreſſive laws, which forbad, in certain diſtricts, all peaſants to marry without the conſent of the governor of the province, or the vayvode of the town, who uſually exacted a preſent from the parties. The empreſs, by aboliſhing this tax upon the rights of humanity, has wiſely removed, as far as lay in her power, every obſtacle to marriage *.

I was much ſurpriſed to find, upon enquiry, that no noble in Ruſſia had franchiſed his vaſſals in the ſame manner as I before mentioned to have been practiſed in Poland; but

* See 17th article of the Manifeſto at the concluſion of the peace with the Grand Signior:

" In certain diſtricts of our empire it has been hitherto " neceſſary to obtain a permiſſion to marry from the go- " vernors of provinces, or the vayvodes of towns; and " this permiſſion was uſually purchaſed by money or cattle. " We aboliſh this cuſtom; and from this time every per- " ſon ſhall be free to marry without obtaining ſimilar per- " miſſions."

I may

I may venture to predict, that the time is not far diſtant; although an almoſt general prejudice ſeems at preſent to prevail with reſpect to the incapacity of the peaſants for receiving their liberty. And this perhaps may be true in the literal ſenſe; as many of them, unleſs properly inſtructed, would ſcarcely be enabled to derive a ſolid advantage from their freedom, which might be conſidered by ſome as an exemption from labour, and a permiſſion for licentiouſneſs.

A century ago, perhaps no one in Ruſſia would have ventured to debate the queſtion, Whether the peaſants ought to be free? But the ſcience and learning, which are now dawning upon theſe regions, have already introduced ſuch a ſpirit of enquiry, that ſimilar ſubjects are not unfrequently diſcuſſed in public. A remarkable inſtance, which juſtifies the truth of this obſervation, lately occurred: in conſequence of a preſent of a thouſand ducats, ſent, in 1766, by an anonymous perſon to the Oeconomical Society at St. Peterſburgh, and at the deſire of the ſaid perſon, the Society offered a premium of 50 ducats, and a gold medal, value 25 ducats, to the author of the beſt diſſertation on the following queſtion: "Is it moſt advantageous to the ſtate, that

"the

" the peaſant ſhould poſſeſs land, or only per-
" ſonal effects; and to what point ſhould that
" property be extended for the good of the
" public?" One hundred and ſixty-four diſ-ſertations were accordingly delivered by the time appointed: and the prize was given to a Mr. Bearde, doctor in canon and civil law at Aix-la-Chapelle, for a French eſſay upon this intereſting ſubject in favour of the peaſants.

This treatiſe afforded me great ſatisfaction in the peruſal; becauſe the author, while he demonſtrates the advantages of landed property to the peaſant, does not conceal the difficulties which muſt neceſſarily occur in realizing an object of ſuch conſequence. He is not one of thoſe ſpeculative theoriſts, who are for haſtily changing the fundamental laws of a kingdom; but recommends the legiſlature to confer upon the peaſants a gradual ſucceſſion of privileges, and to follow the ſlow, but ſure method of inſtruction and improvement. This and ſeveral other eſſays upon the ſame ſubject have been printed at Peterſburgh; and will certainly tend to excite a candid ſpirit of enquiry, and to diffuſe ſuch principles of benevolence, as cannot fail of being in time productive of ſome good effects. The following judicious reflection of Catharine II. perhaps comprehends

comprehends in a few words the ſum of the beſt arguments which may be advanced on this ſubject: " L'agriculture ne pourra jamais pro- " ſperer là où l'agriculteur ne poſſede rien en " propre *."

From this general review of the various inhabitants in Ruſſia, it may be perceived, that though they are proceeding towards civilization, they are ſtill far removed from that ſtate; that a general improvement cannot take place while the greateſt part continue in abſolute vaſſalage; nor can any effectual change be introduced in the national manners, until the people enjoy a full ſecurity in their perſons and property: for what ſhould encourage them to ſucceed in any art, when they do not themſelves reap the benefits of their labour, but are taxed in proportion to their profits and induſtry?

* " Agriculture can never flouriſh in that nation where " the huſbandman poſſeſſes no property." Inſtructions, &c. pour le Nouveau Code de Loix, p. 83.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

Academy of Sciences.—Its origin and inſtitution. — Tranſactions. — Members. — Library. — Muſeum.—Foſſil bones of elephants and other animals found in Siberia. — *Native copper and iron. — Golden ornaments from ſeveral ancient ſepulchres.—* Ruſſian *coins.—Waxen figure of* Peter the Great.—*Celeſtial globe of* Gottorp.—*Academy of Arts.—Society for the Promotion of Agriculture. — Corps de cadets.—Couvent des demoiſelles nobles.*

THE Imperial Academy of Sciences owes its inſtitution to Peter the Great. That great monarch having, during his travels, obſerved the advantage of public ſocieties for the encouragement and promotion of literature, formed the deſign of founding an Academy of Sciences at St. Peterſburgh. By the advice of Wolf and Leibnitz, whom he conſulted on this occaſion, the Society was regulated, and ſeveral learned foreigners were invited to become members. Peter himſelf drew the plan, and ſigned it on the 10th of February 1724; but was prevented, by the ſuddenneſs of his death,

death, from carrying it into execution. His deceaſe, however, did not prevent its completion; for, on the 21ſt of December 1725, Catharine I. eſtabliſhed it according to Peter's plan; and on the 27th of the ſame month the Society was firſt aſſembled. On the 1ſt of Auguſt 1726 Catharine honoured the meeting with her preſence, when profeſſor Bulfinger, a German naturaliſt of great eminence, pronounced an oration upon the advances made by the loadſtone and needle for the diſcovery of the longitude *.

The empreſs ſettled a fund of £. 4,982 † per annum for the ſupport of the Academy; and fifteen members, all eminent for their learning and talents, were admitted and penſioned, under the title of Profeſſors in the various branches of literature and ſcience. The moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe Profeſſors were Nicholas and Daniel Bernoulli, the two De Liſles, Bulfinger, and Wolf.

During the ſhort reign of Peter II. the ſalaries of the members were diſcontinued, and

* See Nachricht von der Kays: Acad. &c. in Schmidt Beytrade, p. 35; alſo Jour. Pet. for June 1779, p. 383.

† "Summam a Petro Magno conſtitutam viginti-quatuor millium nongentorum et duodecim rubellonum." Nov. Com. I. p. 5.

. the

the Academy was utterly neglected by the court; but it was again patronized by the empreſs Anne, who even added a ſeminary for the education of youth, under the ſuperintendence of the profeſſors. Both inſtitutions flouriſhed for ſome time under the direction of baron Korf; but upon his death, towards the latter end of Anne's reign, an ignorant perſon being appointed preſident, many of the moſt able members quitted Ruſſia. At the acceſſion of Elizabeth, new life and vigour were again reſtored to the Academy: the original plan was enlarged and improved; ſome of the moſt learned foreigners were again drawn to Peterſburgh; and, what was conſidered as a good omen for the literature of Ruſſia, two natives, Lomonoſof and Rumovſky, men of genius and abilities, who had proſecuted their ſtudies in foreign univerſities, were enrolled among its members. The annual income was increaſed to £.10,659 *, and ſoon afterwards the new inſtitution took place.

The preſent empreſs, with her uſual zeal for promoting the diffuſion of knowledge, has

* « Clementiſſime jubemus adjici octo et viginti millia « rubellones trecentos et octaginta ſex." Nov. Com. I. p. 6.

taken

taken this uſeful Society under her more immediate protection. She has altered the court of directors greatly to the advantage of the whole body; ſhe has corrected many abuſes; and has infuſed a new ſpirit into their reſearches. By her majeſty's particular recommendation, the moſt ingenious profeſſors have viſited the various provinces of her vaſt dominions; and as the fund of the Academy was not ſufficient to ſupply the whole expence of theſe ſeveral expeditions, the empreſs beſtowed a largeſs * of £. 2,000, which ſhe has renewed as occaſion has required.

The purpoſe and intent of theſe travels will appear from the inſtructions given by the Academy to the ſeveral perſons who were engaged in them. They were ordered to purſue their inquiries upon the different ſorts of earths and waters; upon the beſt methods of cultivating the barren and deſart ſpots; upon the local diſorders incident to men and animals, and the moſt efficacious means of relieving them; upon the breeding of cattle, and particularly of ſheep; on the rearing of bees and ſilk-worms; on the different places and objects for fiſhing and hunting; on minerals;

* Bach. Ruſſ. Bibl. vol. I. p. 50.

on

on the arts and trades; and on forming a *Flora Ruſſica*, or collection of indigenous plants: they were particularly inſtructed to rectify the longitude and latitude of the principal towns; to make aſtronomical, geographical, and meteorological obſervations; to trace the courſe of the rivers; to take the moſt exact charts; to be very diſtinct and accurate in remarking and deſcribing the manners and cuſtoms of the different people, their dreſſes, languages, antiquities, traditions, hiſtory, religion; and, in a word, to gain every information which might tend to illuſtrate the real ſtate of the whole Ruſſian empire.

In conſequence of theſe expeditions, perhaps no country can boaſt, within the ſpace of ſo few years, ſuch a number of excellent publications on its internal ſtate; on its natural productions; on its topography, geography, and hiſtory; on the manners, cuſtoms, and languages of the different people, as have iſſued from the preſs of the Academy of Sciences; ſo that we may fairly aſſent to the truth of the remark made by an anonymous author upon this ſubject: " *Tous ces différens objets ont été* " *ſupérieurement remplis par nos illuſtres ſavans,* " *& l'on n'a pas eû tort d'avancer que jamais* " *l'hiſtoire naturelle n'a obtenu tout d'un coup*

" *un pareil accroiſſement de richeſſes, fruits in-*
" *eſtimables du labeur de ces hommes vraiment*
" *utiles; & leurs rélations ſont devenues un mo-*
" *nument à jamais durable de leur zéle, de leurs*
" *rares talens, et de leur infatigable activité* *."

The moſt remarkable of theſe diſtinguiſhed travellers are Pallas, Gmelin, Guldenſtaedt †, Georgi, and Lepekin.

The firſt tranſactions of this Society were publiſhed in 1728, and intitled, *Commentarii Academiæ Scientiarum Imperialis Petropolitanæ, ad An.* 1726, with a dedication to Peter II. The publication was continued under this form until the year 1747, when its tranſactions were called *Novi* ‡ *Commentarii Academiæ*, &c. In 1777 the Academy again changed

* " All theſe different objects have been accompliſhed
" in the beſt manner by our illuſtrious philoſophers; and
" it may be advanced with truth, that natural hiſtory never,
" in ſo ſhort a time, acquired an equal increaſe of riches,
" ineſtimable fruits of the labour of thoſe truly uſeful men;
" and their accounts have become an everlaſting monu-
" ment of their zeal, of their rare talents, and indefatigable
" activity." Hiſt. des Decouv. par divers ſavans Voyageurs, &c. Introduction.

† The reader will find an account of Pallas, Gmelin, and Guldenſtaedt in the next chapter

‡ " Hunc autem et ſequentes tomos Novorum Com-
" mentariorum nomine ideo venire, quia Academia nunc
" novis

changed the title into *Acta Academiæ Scientiarum Imperialis Petropolitanæ*, and likewiſe made ſome alteration in the arrangement and plan of the work. The papers, which had been hitherto publiſhed in the Latin tongue, are now written either in that language or French; and a preface is added, ſtyled *Partie Hiſtorique*, which contains an account of its proceedings, meetings, admiſſion of new members, and other remarkable occurrences*. Of the Commentaries, fourteen volumes were publiſhed; the firſt of the New Commentaries made its appearance in 1750, and the twentieth in 1776. Under the title of *Acta Academiæ*, ſeven volumes have been given to the public; and two are to be printed every year. Theſe tranſactions abound with ingenious and elaborate diſquiſitions upon various parts of ſcience and natural hiſtory, which reflect the greateſt honour upon their authors; and it may not be an exaggeration to aſſert, that no ſociety in Europe has more diſtinguiſhed itſelf

" novis legibus inſtructa eſt; et claſſes hic aliter, ac in " præcedentibus tomis fieri ſolebat, diſpoſitæ inveniuntur." Nov. Com. Vol. I. p. 4.——In this ſame volume the ſtatutes for the regulation of the Society, under its new inſtitutions, are inſerted, p. 9—33.

* Acta Pet. for 1771, P. I.

for the excellence of its publications, and particularly in the more abſtruſe parts of the pure and mixed mathematics.

The Academy is ſtill compoſed, as at firſt, of fifteen profeſſors, beſide the preſident and director. Each of theſe profeſſors has a houſe and an annual ſtipend from £. 200 to £. 600. Beſide the profeſſors, there are four adjuncts, who are penſioned, and who are preſent at the ſittings of the Society, and ſucceed to the firſt vacancies.

This general account of the eſtabliſhment, progreſs, and preſent ſtate of the Academy, will be naturally ſucceeded by a deſcription of the library; the cabinet of natural hiſtory; and the other curioſities, which I viſited ſeveral times during my ſtay at Peterſburgh.

Mr. Bachmeiſter, the librarian, has juſtly remarked, in a recent publication *, that war, which in moſt other countries is unfavourable to the ſciences, has tended to promote them in this empire. The library owed its origin to 2,500 volumes which Peter the Great ſeized at Mittau, in his Swediſh campaign: it was afterwards increaſed by the bounty of that em-

* Eſſai ſur la Bibliotheque, &c. de l'Acad. des Sciences.

peror,

peror, and of his ſucceſſors; and lately enriched by the curious collection of prince Radzivil at Newitz, taken by the Ruſſians in 1772, during the troubles of Poland. Mr. Bachmeiſter informed me, that, ſince this laſt acquiſition, the number of books amounted to about 36,000. The moſt ancient MSS. are the Lives of the Saints, written in 1298; and a Chronicle of Neſtor, the earlieſt hiſtorian of this empire. This Chronicle, together with thoſe of Novogorod, Pleſcof, of the Ukraine, Caſan, and Aſtracan, the genealogical tables of the early great-dukes, from Vladimir the Great to the tzar Ivan Vaſſilievitch, compiled in the 12th, 13th, 14th, and following centuries, convinced me, that Ruſſia is extremely rich, as well in documents relating to its more remote annals, as to thoſe of later times *. They are all written in the Sclavonian tongue. Among the MSS. relating to the hiſtory of Ruſſia, muſt not be omitted ſixteen volumes in folio, containing an account of the negotiations of Peter's miniſters, from 1711 to 1716; as alſo thirty volumes of the official correſpondence of prince Mentchikof, from 1703 to 1717: theſe collections would ſerve as good

* See Chap. VIII.

materials towards compiling an authentic hiſtory of Peter the Great, a work much wanted.

One MS. although of very modern date, is yet highly valued, on account of the auguſt perſon by whom it was written, and is preſerved in an elegant box of bronze gilt. It contains the empreſs's inſtructions to the committee delegated to form a new code of laws; inſtructions drawn up by herſelf, and written with her own hand. This MS. is always placed upon the table, whenever the members of the Academy hold a ſolemn meeting.

Among ſeveral books, the librarian ſhowed me a volume, containing the Acts of the Apoſtles, and the Epiſtles, which is curious, as being the firſt book printed in Ruſſia *; it bears the date of 1564, and iſſued from the preſs eſtabliſhed at Moſcow. Its paper is certainly of our manufacture, as I plainly diſcovered the Engliſh ſtamp: and we find in Hackluyt, that paper is mentioned among the firſt imports which Ruſſia received from England.

* Mr. Nichols informs us, that this book was ten years in the preſs, and that the names of the firſt printers were Ivan Hoderſon and Peter Timofioffsom. See "The Origin of Printing, 1776," p. 288.

This

This library contains, perhaps, a larger quantity of Chineſe books than is to be found in any other collection of Europe. They are claſſed in port-folios, and conſiſt of 2,800 ſeparate pieces. An exact catalogue of them has been lately made by Mr. Leontief, who was ſeveral years at Pekin; where a Ruſſian church is eſtabliſhed, and ſtudents are permitted to reſide for the purpoſe of learning the language *. Hitherto we have been indebted almoſt to the French alone for any probable accounts of the interior ſtate of the Chineſe empire. The amicable intercourſe, however, which has for ſome time ſubſiſted between the courts of Peterſburgh and Pekin, has facilitated the acquiſition of Chineſe books; and the eſtabliſhment of a ſeminary at Pekin has naturally led the Ruſſians to obtain a more general and accurate knowledge of that country. Hence many intereſting publications have been lately put forth at Peterſburgh, relative to the laws, hiſtory, and geography of China, extracted and tranſlated from the originals publiſhed at Pekin.

The various branches of natural hiſtory are diſtributed in different apartments. This mu-

* See Ruſſian Diſcoveries, &c. Part III. Chap. II.

ſeum, which is extremely rich in native productions, has been conſiderably augmented with a variety of ſpecimens, collected by Pallas, Gmelin, Guldenſtaedt, and other learned profeſſors, during their late expeditions through the Ruſſian empire. As it neither falls within my plan, nor is it in my power, to enter into a minute account of all the various ſpecimens; I ſhall only curſorily mention a few objects which principally engaged my attention. The ſtuffed animals and birds occupy one apartment. Among the former I particularly obſerved the *Equus Hemionus*, a ſpecies of wild horſe, which bears the appearance of a mule: it reſembles an aſs in its mane, ears, feet, and tail, and principally in the black ſtreak down its back; in other parts it is like an horſe. It is the ſame which was called by Ariſtotle the *Hemionos*, found in his days in Syria, and which he celebrates for its amazing ſwiftneſs and fecundity; it is denominated by the Mongols *dſhiggetèi*, which ſignifies eared; is alſo known among naturaliſts by the name of *mulus Dauricus*, becauſe it is found in Dauria, about the rivers Amoor, Onon, and Orgoon. Theſe animals, however, are there obſerved only in ſmall numbers, detached from the numerous herds which inhabit

bit the vaſt deſerts of Tartary, to the ſouth of the Ruſſian dominions. Their ſwiftneſs is proverbial, and is ſaid to exceed even that of the antelope: they are deſcribed by the Tartars as very fierce, and ſo untractable as not to be tamed. Mr. Pallas has favoured the world with an accurate deſcription and engraving of this ſingular animal, in the New Commentaries of the Academy; to which I refer the reader, as well as to Mr. Pennant's account, in his Hiſtory of Quadrupeds. The other animals peculiar to Ruſſia and the adjacent countries, which attracted my notice, are the wild ram, called *Argoli* by the Mongols, by Linnæus *Capra Ammon*, which inhabits the mountainous deſerts ſouth of the Lake Baikal; and the *Bos Grunniens* of Linnæus, or grunting ox of Pennant. The latter inhabits Tartary and Thibet; and is mentioned here for the uncommon beauty of its tail, which is full and flowing, of a gloſſy and ſilky texture. Theſe tails form a conſiderable article of exportation from Thibet. The Indians faſten ſmall bundles of the hair to a handle, which they uſe for fly-flaps; the Chineſe dye tufts of it with a beautiful ſcarlet, with which they decorate their caps; and the Turks employ it as ornaments

ments * to their ſtandards. I obſerved alſo the ibex, or bouquetin, of Siberia, the white bear, the ermine, the muſk-rat, the flying ſquirrel; among the amphibious animals, the ſea-horſe, whoſe tuſk is uſed inſtead of ivory; and the ſea-otter, greatly prized for its rich and valuable fur. The latter is caught on the coaſt of Kamtchatka, and in the Aleütian and Fox Iſlands; and its ſkin is diſpoſed of to the Chineſe at a high price †.

The collection of birds, inſects, fiſh, ſhells, dried plants, all ranged in the exacteſt order, and after the ſyſtem of Linnæus, next attracts the obſervation of the naturaliſt.

In the cabinet of natural hiſtory, I could not avoid being ſurpriſed with the number and variety of foſſil bones, teeth, and horns, of the elephant, rhinoceros, and buffalo, which have been found in different parts of this empire, but more particularly in the ſouthern regions of Siberia. From the inſpection of their aſtoniſhing variety, I was led to enquire by what means they could have been found in a country, where the animals of which

* The Europeans erroneouſly ſuppoſe theſe ornaments to be made from horſe-tails.

† See Ruſſian Diſcoveries, p. 12.

they

they formerly made a part were never known to exiſt. It was the opinion of Peter, who, though he deſerves to be eſteemed a great monarch, was certainly no great naturaliſt, that the teeth found near Voronetz were the remains of elephants belonging to the army of Alexander the Great, who, according to ſome hiſtorians, croſſed the Don, and advanced as far as Koſtinka *. The celebrated Bayer, whoſe authority carries greater weight in the literary world, conjectures †, that the bones and teeth found in Siberia belonged to elephants common in that country, during the wars which the Mongol monarchs carried on with the Perſians and Indians; and this plauſible ſuppoſition ſeems in ſome meaſure to be corroborated by the diſcovery of the entire ſkeleton of an elephant in one of the Siberian tombs. But this opinion, as Mr. Pallas very juſtly obſerves, is ſufficiently refuted by the conſideration, that the elephants employed in the armies of all India could never have afforded the vaſt quantities of teeth which have been already diſco-

* See Ruſſian Diſcoveries, p. 132. 197. 200. and other parts.

† Le Bruyn's Travels, Vol. I. p. 63.

vered;

vered; not to mention thoſe which it is juſtly to be preſumed may ſtill be buried *.

The ſame ingenious naturaliſt has given an ample deſcription of theſe foſſil bones, and has endeavoured to account for their origin †. Upon examining thoſe in the muſeum, he was led to conclude, that as theſe bones are equally diſperſed in all the northern regions of Europe, the climate probably was in the earlier ages leſs ſevere than at preſent, and then poſſibly ſufficiently warm to be the native countries of the elephant, rhinoceros, and other quadrupeds, now found only in the ſouthern climates. But when he viſited, during his travels, the ſpots where the foſſil bodies were

* Nov. Com. XIII. p. 440.

† Nov. Com. De Oſſibus Sibiriæ foſſilibus. He ſays, that in no country more foſſil bones have been diſcovered than in Siberia; and that elephants teeth have been dug up in ſuch plenty, as to make a conſiderable article of trade. "Nulla tamen unquam regio tot tantaque in hoc genere "graviſſimarum et antiquiſſimarum telluris mutationum "monumenta prodidit, ac Sibiria noſtra, cujus ſubterra- "neum ebur, quamquam hodiernum nonniſi caſu riparum- "que ad majora flumina ruinis detegi ſoleat, ea tamen ſic "quoque copia legitur, ut inter merces indigenas non ul- "timum obtineat locum; illud præſertim, quod in terri, "hyperboreis æterno gelu rigentibus repertum, plane in- "corruptum et tornatili operi adhuc aptum eſt."

dug up, and could form a judgement from his own obſervations, and not from the accounts of others; he, with a candour which reflects the higheſt honour upon his good ſenſe, renounced his former hypotheſis; and, in conformity with the opinions of many modern philoſophers, aſſerted that they muſt have been brought by the waters; and that nothing but a ſudden and general inundation, ſuch as the deluge, could have tranſported them from their native countries in the ſouth, to the regions of the north. In proof of this aſſertion, he adds, that the bones are generally found ſeparate, as if they had been ſcattered by the waves, covered with a ſtratum of mud, evidently formed by the waters, and commonly intermixed with the remains of marine plants, and ſimilar ſubſtances *; inſtances of which

* De reliquiis animalium exoticorum per Aſiam repertis.

" In pleriſque ripis, que foſſili ebore oſſibuſque incaluerunt, membra animalium plerumque disjecta reperiuntur, quaſi a fluctibus agitata, et obruta limo vel glareoſis maxime ſtratis, evidentiſſime undarum effectu et fluctuatione congeſtis, imo variis ſæpe corporum marinorum reliquiis conſociata. Hujus momenti in extricanda oſſium foſſilium hiſtoria graviſſimi, pluribus in locis luculentiſſima exempla propriis oculis vidi."

And

which he himſelf obſerved during his progreſs through Siberia, and which ſufficiently prove that theſe regions of Aſia were once overwhelmed with the ſea.

Thus far Mr. Pallas, to whoſe excellent diſquiſition on the ſubject I muſt refer the curious reader: for my own part, I can only add, that I examined the ſpecimens in the muſeum with that attention which they deſerved, and am perfectly ſatisfied that they are the foſſil bones of the animals in queſtion. The moſt

· And again, "Ex eodem limoſo ſolo Rhymnus, ubicunque altiores ripas ſubruit, crebro in conſpectum producit elephantum dentes, maxillas, magna artuum oſſa, bubalorum immania cum cornibus capita, ſimileſque reliquias, quarum bene magnum numerum per haſce regiones profectus miraculi loco apud plebem aſſervari vidi, quæque magis integra reliquerat ætas collegi."

Mr. Pallas, in a recent publication, has deſcribed ſeveral foſſil bones lately dug up in the government of Caſan, ſome whereof were ſent to Peterſburgh in 1779, and depoſited in the muſeum of the Academy. The moſt remarkable of theſe bones which he enumerates, are the following: An elephant's tooth, 10 ſpans $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, and $15\frac{1}{4}$ inches in circumference; ditto, 5 feet 3 inches in length, and the ſame in circumference; ſeveral bones of elephants of conſiderable ſize; a damaged horn of a rhinoceros, 2 feet 4 inches long; a jaw of a rhinoceros, 3 ſpans and $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches long, containing two black teeth, &c. Bericht von Gebeinen groſſer auſlaendiſcher Thiere. Pallas's Nordiſche Beytrage, Vol. I. p. 173.

curious of theſe ſpecimens is the head and foot of a rhinoceros, which were dug up entire in a bank of the Vilui, a ſmall river falling into the Lena, in latitude 64, below Yakutſk: the body was found in December 1771; and when Mr. Pallas came into thoſe parts the following year, the head and two legs were ſent to him by the governor of the province, and by him tranſmitted to the muſeum. The ſkin and hair are very apparent. The following tranſlation of the account relative to the diſcovery of this rhinoceros is extracted from Pallas's Travels. I have preferred this extract to the deſcription given in the Commentaries of the Academy; as well becauſe the latter is too long to be inſerted in this place; as becauſe the German, in which the former is written, is leſs familiar to the Engliſh reader than the Latin, in which the other is compoſed.

" This winter the hunters of Yakutſk " found, near the rivulet Vilui, the body of " an unknown animal, the head and two " hinder feet whereof were ſent to Irkutſk " by Ivan Angunof, vayvode of Vilitſk. In " the account of this diſcovery, dated the " 17th of January, it appears; that in De- " cember, about 26 miles above Vilitſk, the

" body

" body of an animal was obſerved half buried
" in the ſand, about a fathom from the water,
" and four fathom from a ſteep cliff. Being
" meaſured upon the ſpot, it was found to be
" 7 feet 7 inches in length, and in height
" about 7 feet 6 inches. The hide was en-
" tire; the body appeared of its natural bulk;
" but in ſuch a ſtate, that only the head and
" feet could be carried away; one of the latter
" was ſent to Yakutſk, and the remainder to
" Irkutſk. Upon inſpection, they ſeemed to
" have belonged to a full-grown rhinoceros;
" and as the head was entirely covered with
" the ſkin, there could be no doubt of the
" fact. On one ſide the ſmall hairs were ſtill
" perfect. The exterior organization was well
" preſerved, and the eye-lids were not entirely
" corrupted. Here and there under the ſkin,
" and the bones, and alſo in the hollow part
" of the ſkull, was found a ſlimy ſubſtance,
" the remains of the putrid fleſh; and upon
" the feet, beſide the ſlime, parts of the ten-
" dons and ſinews were obſerved. Both the
" horn and the hoofs were wanting; but the
" hollow in which the horn had been ſet,
" and the edge of the ſkin which encircled
" its baſe, being apparent, and the cloven ſe-
" paration of the hoofs being viſible, afforded
" undoubted

" undoubted proof that the animal was a " rhinoceros. Having given, in the Com- " mentaries of the Academy of Sciences, a " particular deſcription of this extraordinary " diſcovery, I will not repeat what I have " there advanced concerning the cauſes which " might have brought this rhinoceros into " theſe northern regions, and have diſperſed " the other remains of exotic animals through " Siberia. I ſhall here only mention a few " circumſtances, which I obtained from Ar- " gunof, relative to the place where the re- " mains of the rhinoceros were diſcovered; " and ſhall add a few conjectures upon the " poſſibility of their preſervation during ſo " long a period. The country about the " Vilui is mountainous; and the mountains " conſiſt of ſtrata, partly of ſand and lime- " ſtone, and partly of clay mixed with many " pebbles. The body was found in a hill, " compoſed of ſand and pebbles, about fifteen " fathoms high: it was buried deep in a coarſe " gravelly ſand; and was preſerved by the " froſt, as the ground in that part is never " thawed at any conſiderable depth. The " warmeſt and moſt expoſed places are thaw- " ed about two ells deep by the ſun; but the " lower parts, which are formed of clay and

" ſand, are, even at the end of ſummer, frozen
" at no more than half an ell below the ſur-
" face. Without this circumſtance it would
" have been impoſſible that the ſkin and other
" parts of this quadruped ſhould have been
" preſerved for ſo long a time: for we cannot
" aſſign the quick tranſportation of this ani-
" mal, from its native country in the ſouth to
" theſe cold regions, to a later period, or to a
" leſs important cauſe, than to the deluge; as
" the moſt ancient hiſtories of mankind make
" no mention of any later revolution of this
" globe, which could, with equal probabi-
" lity, have buried theſe remains of the rhi-
" noceros, as well as the bones of the ele-
" phants that are ſcattered throughout Si-
" beria *."

The variety of ores collected from the numerous mines of the Ruſſian empire, highly deſerves the attention of the mineralogiſt. In ſpeaking of this collection, I ſhall confine myſelf to two ſpecimens very intereſting to naturaliſts; namely, native copper, and a large maſs of native iron. The former was brought from a ſmall iſland lying cloſe to Beering's Iſland, within ſight of the coaſt of Kamt-

* Pallas Reiſe, Part III. p. 97.

chatka,

chatka, which takes its name of Mednoi Oſtrof, or Copper Iſland, from the pieces of native copper that are not unfrequently found upon the beach.

The ſpecimen of native iron is part of a moſt remarkable maſs, conſiſting of that metal in its pure ſtate, blended with glaſs like matter *: it is in every reſpect perfect, malleable, and capable of being forged into any form; ſuſceptible of ruſt; in a word, partaking of all the undoubted qualities of iron. It was diſcovered in Siberia by Mr. Pallas, who, at my deſire, favoured me with a deſcription in French; and, as it helps to elucidate the account ſent to the Royal Society by the ſame author, I ſhall here inſert a tranſlation. Let me only remark, that I repeatedly examined the ſpecimen, and found its real ſtate to be exactly deſcribed. I expreſsly mention theſe circumſtances, as ſome perſons have doubted the exiſtence of this block of native

* It appears, by Mr. Meyer's analyſis of this mineral, that the glaſs-like matter conſiſts of 8 parts of ferruginous earth, 27 of ſilicious earth, and 25 of the earth of magneſia. See Meyer's "Verſuche mit der von dem "Herrn Prof. Pallas in Siberien gefundenen Eiſenſtuffe;" in Beſchaeftigungem der Berlin. Geſellſchafe. Vol. III. p. 405.

iron; and as I am always anxious, whenever I have it in my power, to aſcertain the truth of every relation which I give to the public.

" This maſs, which exhibits the firſt in-
" ſtance of native iron ever found in a perfect
" ſtate of malleability, was diſcovered upon
" an eminence oppoſite to Mount Memis,
" near the eaſtern bank of the Yenisèi, be-
" tween the rivulets Oberi and Siſim, which
" fall into that river above the town of Kraſ-
" noyarſk. It was a ſeparate maſs, which
" ſeemed to have been detached, by lapſe of
" time, from the mountain upon which it
" reſted; and what is very remarkable, the
" chain of mountains, among which it was
" found, do not afford the leaſt traces of any
" volcano, any remains of forges or ancient
" mines, or in any other part the ſmalleſt ap-
" pearances of native iron. Within about
" 374 yards of the ſpot where it was obſerved,
" is a rich vein of a blueiſh magnetic ore;
" which, being viſited by the Ruſſian miners,
" firſt led to the diſcovery of the inſulated
" maſs, which, in its original ſtate, weighed
" 1440 Engliſh pounds, and was incruſted
" in moſt parts with a thick coat of blackiſh
" iron ore. The inſide conſiſts of pure mal-
" leable

" leable iron, divided by irregular cavities, " which are filled with a vitrified tranſparent " ſubſtance; yellow for the moſt part, but " black in a few places, eſpecially near the " ſurface, and blended here and there with " ocre. Thoſe who have never ſeen any parts " of this maſs may be diſpoſed to conclude " that it muſt have been the effect of art; " but they who examine it with attention " muſt be of opinion, that it was entirely na- " tural, although they cannot account for the " mode of its production."

The anatomical cabinet is highly eſteemed, from its having been prepared by Ruyſch, a celebrated anatomiſt of the Hague, who ſold it, in 1717, to Peter the Great, for 30,000 fiorins *. This collection is particularly celebrated for the regular ſucceſſion of fœtuſes in ſpirits, from the earlieſt period of conception to the birth of the infant; and for the injections of the brain and eye. The membranes of the eye are ſo fine and tender, that it requires infinite care to inject them; and Ruyſch, of all others, ſucceeded beſt in this difficult operation. He ſuppoſed that he had diſcovered a new membrane in the choroides

* About £. 3,000.

of the eye, which is from him called Ruyiſchian. In order to aſcertain this diſcovery, he ſpared neither pains nor expence: and although, in the opinion of the moſt able anatomiſts, he may not have ſucceeded in his attempts to prove the exiſtence of this new membrane*; yet his labours muſt be eſteemed of great uſe, and his injections of the finer veſſels of the eye are juſtly admired for their ſuperior delicacy.

I haſten to the chamber of rarities, in which, among the moſt conſpicuous curioſities, muſt be mentioned the ornaments found in the tombs of Siberia, many of which are of great value†, being

* He affirmed, that he divided the choroides into two membranes; but it is now the received opinion, that he only ſplit the ſame membrane into two parts.

† The quantity of gold found in theſe tombs is ſcarcely credible. One which was opened in the neighbourhood of the Irtiſh, is thus deſcribed in the Archæologia:

"After removing a very deep covering of earth and "ſtones, the workmen came to three vaults, conſtructed "of ſtones of rude workmanſhip; a view of which is "exhibited in the annexed plate.

"That wherein the prince was depoſited, which was in "the centre, and the largeſt of the three, was eaſily diſtin-"guiſhed by the ſword, ſpear, bow, quiver, and arrow, "which lay beſide him. In the vault beyond him, towards "which his feet lay, were his horſe, bridle, ſaddle, and ſtir-"rups.

being of maſſive gold, and of very elegant workmanſhip. Theſe ornaments conſiſt of bracelets, ſome of which weigh a pound; of collars in the ſhape of ſerpents; of vaſes, crowns, bucklers, rings, figures of animals richly carved in gold and ſilver; ſabres with golden hilts, ornamented with precious ſtones; Tartar idols; and other antiquities. The ſurpriſing quantity of golden ornaments, were they not evident to ſight, would exceed all belief; but having been in fact diſcovered in the manner repreſented, it is certain that the

" rups. The body of the prince lay in a reclining poſture,
" upon a ſheet of pure gold, extending from head to foot:
" and another ſheet of gold of the like dimenſions was
" ſpread over him. He was wrapped in a rich mantle,
" bordered with gold, and ſtudded with rubies and emeralds.
" His head, neck, breaſt, and arms naked, and without any
" ornament.

" In the leſſer vault lay the princeſs, diſtinguiſhed by
" her female ornaments. She was placed reclining againſt
" the walls, with a gold chain of many links, ſet with ru-
" bies, round her neck, and gold bracelets round her arms.
" The head, breaſt, and arms were naked. The body was
" covered with a rich robe, but without any border of gold
" or jewels, and was laid on a ſheet of fine gold, and co-
" vered over with another. The four ſheets of gold weigh-
" ed 40 pounds. The robes of both looked fair and com-
" plete; but, upon touching, crumbled into duſt."

Demidof's Account of certain Tartarian Antiquities, in the Archæologia, Vol. II. p. 223, 224.

people whoſe relics were interred in theſe places muſt have been very rich. How then are we to account for a civilized nation, capable of theſe artificial productions, formerly exiſting upon the banks of the Irtiſh, the Tobol, and the Yenisèi? Mr. Muller, who has made reſearches upon the ſubject, and who, during his travels through Siberia, examined many of the ſpots where the tombs were opened, advances the following probable conjectures concerning the people to whom they belonged; and from him all ſubſequent authors, who have written upon this point, have drawn their concluſions *.

After deſcribing the different ſpecies of tombs obſerved in the ſouthern parts of Siberia; he adds, "that as in ſeveral of theſe burial places "the bones of men, women, and horſes, have "been found, with javelins, bows and arrows, "and other weapons; it ſeems evident that "the ſame ancient ſuperſtition, which ſtill "reigns in India, was formerly prevalent in "thoſe parts; namely, that the departed ſouls "follow the ſame kind of life in a future

* See Mr. Muller's excellent Treatiſe Von den Altern Graebern in Siberia in Haygold, Vol. II. p. 155; alſo in the Journal of St. Pet. for 1779.

"ſtate,

" ſtate, which they purſued in this world *. " For this purpoſe, at the demiſe of a perſon " of diſtinction, his favourite wife, his ſervants, " the horſes upon which he was accuſtomed " to ride, were ſacrificed at his tomb, and bu- " ried with him; and for the ſame reaſon his " arms, dreſs, and other accoutrements, were " alſo interred: hence the Indian wives, to " this day, throw themſelves upon the funeral " pile of their huſbands." And Mr. Muller obſerves, that upon inſpecting the ancient archives of Yakutſk, he found the ſame cuſtom obtained among the inhabitants when the Ruſſians firſt made the conqueſt of thoſe parts; and that the only effectual method of putting a ſtop to ſuch proceedings, was by puniſhing all thoſe as murderers who ſacrificed the wives and ſervants of the deceaſed. Having thus accounted for the quantity of gold and ſilver ornaments found in theſe tombs, he next endeavours to point out the particular people to whom theſe burial places belonged; and he is equally judicious in the ſolution of

* Or, as the poet has elegantly expreſſed it:

——— *Quæ gratia currûm*
Armorumque fuit vivis, quæ cura nitentes
Paſcere equos; eadem ſequitur tellure reposſos.
Æneid. lib. vi. 653.

this

this difficult enquiry. He begins by aſſerting, that the richeſt of theſe burial places were made in the time of Zinghis Khan and his immediate ſucceſſors. The moſt valuable tombs being found near the banks of the Volga, the Tobol, and the Irtiſh; the next in value in the deſerts of the Yenisèi; and the pooreſt in the countries bordering upon the lake Baikal: he ſuppoſes them all to have been the work of the Mongol hordes at different periods, who inhabited, at various times, the diſtricts in which the burial places at preſent exiſt. He grounds his proof upon the following circumſtances: Zinghis, or Tchinghis Khan, laid the foundation of his vaſt power in the beginning of the 13th century. The roving hordes of Mongols, who were firſt under his dominion, inhabited the countries about the rivers Selenga, Tola, Orkon, and Anon, ſtretching from the river Amoor to the Mongol Deſert, which leads to the wall of China. Theſe hordes were at that time a poor tribe; and hence the tombs which are found in thoſe parts are very ſcantily provided with rich accoutrements, and ornaments of any value.

Zinghis had no ſooner brought the Mongols under his ſubjection, than he turned his

arms

arms to different quarters. With the aid of theſe warlike tribes, he and his immediate ſucceſſors conquered great part of China, independent Tartary, Perſia, and the regions as far as the Black Sea; and held for ſome years almoſt all Ruſſia under their yoke. The plunder of ſuch vaſt countries centered for the moſt part in the ſettlement of the chief Khan, acknowledged by all the feudal princes as the head of that extenſive empire; which, upon the death of Zinghis Khan, was divided into many independent principalities. This ſettlement was, about the middle of the 13th century, not far from the banks of the Irtiſh; as appears from the travels of the miſſionary Rubruquis, who, in his way to the court of the Khan Magnu, deſcribes the laſt river he croſſed to be the Yaik; and as he never mentions the Irtiſh, it is probable that the ſeat of the court was ſituated between thoſe two rivers: accordingly we find, in corroboration of this ſuppoſition, that the richeſt ſepulchres are diſcovered in the parts between the Yaik and the Irtiſh. Towards the beginning of the 15th century, the empire of the Mongols fell to pieces; and therefore there ſeems no other period, but the 13th and 14th centuries, in which they could have collected ſuch an immenſe

menſe booty as the ornaments found in theſe tombs ſeem to indicate.

It is a remarkable circumſtance, that many of theſe ornaments are executed with ſuch taſte and elegance, as is hardly to be accounted for from the ſtate of the arts at that time in the Eaſt: and indeed they were undoubtedly the work of Europeans, whom the liberality of Zinghis Khan and his ſucceſſors drew to their courts; for Rubruquis met at the court of Magnu, William Boucher, a French goldſmith, employed by that Khan.

Mr. Müller, with his uſual candour, allows one exception to his general aſſertion, that all the tombs of Siberia, in which arms and ornaments were interred with the deceaſed, were the burial places of the Mongols; and he deſcribes a few which ſeem of a far more ancient date, and contain copper arms, utenſils, and ornaments. Theſe relics are now preſerved in the chamber of rarities; and I examined them with great attention. The knives, ſpears, and ſwords, being uniformly of copper, ſeem to prove, that the people who were buried in theſe parts were not acquainted with the uſe of iron; and therefore muſt have been of very high antiquity, and far anterior to the Mongol hordes.

Mr.

Mr. Muller, who has inveſtigated all theſe ſubjects with a wonderful ſpirit of enquiry, ſuppoſes theſe people to have been the Igurs, or Uigurs *; from whom Zinghis Khan, as his own ſubjects the Mongols were entirely without the uſe of letters, is ſaid to have adopted the alphabet and the art of writing. But he gives this merely as a conjecture; and admits the uncertainty of ſettling deciſively to what people theſe copper arms and ornaments belonged, or at what period they were buried.

A long gallery contains the various dreſſes of the inhabitants in the Ruſſian empire, and of many eaſtern nations: among which the Chineſe are the moſt conſiderable. One apartment is filled with the dreſſes, arms, and implements brought from the new-diſcovered iſlands between Aſia and America, and from the parts of the continent which have been viſited by the Ruſſian veſſels. Some of theſe ſpecimens are the ſame which are mentioned in the Journals of the Ruſſian Voyages; namely, caps beautifully adorned with long

* Or Ugorians, the anceſtors of the preſent Hungarians, who, in remote times, inhabited parts of Siberia. One of the necklaces found in theſe tombs reſembles thoſe ſtill uſed in Hungary. Eſſai Bib. p. 176.

ſtreamers of hair like the ancient helmets; clothes made with the ſkins of ſea-otters, of rein-deer, and of birds painted red, and ornamented with fringes of leather, hair, or ſinews; alſo wooden maſks, repreſenting the heads of large fiſh and ſea-animals, which the inhabitants occaſionally wear at feſtivals *.

In this gallery are various idols, which Mr. Pallas procured from the Calmuc or Mongol hordes roving in Siberia, many of whom are ſtill plunged in a ſtate of the groſſeſt idolatry, and follow the religion of the Dalai Lama. Some of theſe deities are delineated upon canvas; others are of clay, painted or gilded; and a few are of bronze, chiefly procured from Thibet. They are moſtly groteſque figures, with many hands and arms, and ſitting croſs-legged; and are ſimilar to thoſe worſhipped by many ſects in the Eaſt: they are hollow, and generally filled with relics and ſentences of prayers. Engravings of the moſt remarkable idols are given in Pallas's Travels.

I paid great attention to the collection of Ruſſian coins, which throw a conſiderable light upon the early hiſtory of this country. The moſt ancient ſubſtitutes for money, which

* See Ruſſian Diſcoveries, p. 131. 197. 200. and other parts.

paſſed

paſſed among the natives, were ſmall pieces of leather, or of martens' ſkin; but in their dealings with foreigners, the Ruſſians, like the Chineſe at preſent, uſed to exchange their merchandize for gold and ſilver in bullion. The preciſe time in which the art of coining began to be practiſed in Ruſſia is unknown; but it was moſt probably derived from the Tartars. The coins * are ranged into nine claſſes.

1. The firſt contains thoſe that are without inſcriptions: theſe, which are undoubtedly the moſt ancient, exhibit in one or two inſtances an human figure on horſeback, wielding a ſword; but are for the moſt part ſtamped with the rude repreſentations of certain animals; and which, according to the ingenious conjecture of a Ruſſian hiſtorian †, denote their Tartarian origin in the following manner: The cycle or period of computation employed by the Tartars, was ſimilar to that

* Monſ. Le Clerc has lately favoured the public with a very curious account of the Numiſmatic Hiſtory of Ruſſia, which he has rendered extremely valuable by engravings of 177 of the moſt ancient coins. See Hiſt. de la Ruſſ. Anc. Vol. II. p. 527 to 549.

† Sherebatof in Journ. St. Pet. for 1781, Part II. p. 15.

ſtill

ſtill uſed by the Chineſe and Mongols, and contained twelve years; each whereof was ſucceſſively marked by the following animals: 1. a mouſe; 2. an ox; 3. a tiger; 4. a hare; 5. a crocodile, and ſometimes a dragon; 6. a ſerpent; 7. a horſe; 8. a lamb; 9. an ape; 10. a hen; 11. a dog; 12. a hog. Of theſe all but the crocodile, the ape, and the hare, appear upon the coins; and perhaps the Tartars who over-ran Ruſſia uſed, inſtead of them, the ſwan, the harpy, and the ſyren, whoſe repreſentations are occaſionally obſerved. The coins impreſſed with the figures above-mentioned, were probably ſtruck in the correſponding years of the cycle. The ſame hiſtorian alſo advances, that the annual tribute paid by the Ruſſians to the Tartars was marked by the animals which denote the particular year of the cycle; and, as in ſome coins two of theſe animals are repreſented at the ſame time, probably the tribute of two years was delivered at once: he ſupports this conjecture with great appearance of argument. 2. Coins with a Tartar inſcription exhibit images of men on foot, or on horſeback, holding in their hands a ſabre, a lance, and a falcon; alſo of griffins, goats, fowls, and ſwans. 3. Coins that have jointly both Tartar and Ruſſian

Ruſſian inſcriptions. 4. Coins with only Ruſſian characters without date; and as the name of the prince in whoſe reign they were ſtruck is not expreſſed, their age cannot be determined. We may remark upon the three laſt claſſes, that from the time the coin bore any inſcription, the characters were ſometimes Tartar, ſometimes Ruſſian, and ſometimes both; as the ſovereigns of this empire were more or leſs ſubject to the Tartar yoke. 5. The coins of the great-dukes, beginning from Vaſſili Demitrievitch, and ending with thoſe of Vaſſili Ivanovitch. The year in which the great-duke firſt ſtruck money at Moſcow is not aſcertained; but from the Ruſſian inſcription upon the moſt ancient pieces of this claſs, *Knaes Veliki Vaſſili*, the great-duke Vaſſili, probably about the year 1424, when Vaſſili Demitrievitch obtained a complete victory over Kundal, khan of the Tartars. The year before the death of Ivan Vaſſilievitch I. a coin was ſtruck by Ariſtotle of Bologna, who, among other foreign artiſts, was drawn by that prince to Moſcow. 6. The coins of the princes of the blood who held independent principalities; namely, thoſe of Galitz, Svenigorod, Moſhaiſk, Bieloſero, Suſdal, Reſan, Tver, &c. 7. Thoſe of the principal towns, which had

the right of coining; namely, Novogorod, Pleſcof, Moſcow, Tver, &c. The moſt ancient are thoſe of Novogorod, in which city the Tartar money had no currency; as the commercial intercourſe with foreign nations had introduced the Lithuanian and Swediſh ſpecies. 8. The coins from the tzar Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. to the majority of Peter the Great. The firſt gold piece was made in the reign of Ivan; and the impreſſion was at the ſame time greatly improved. Upon ſome of theſe pieces I obſerved on one ſide the ſpread-eagle and an unicorn; and on the reverſe the ſpread-eagle, with a St. George and the dragon on its breaſt. The firſt introduction of the ſpread-eagle is ſuppoſed to be owing to the marriage of Ivan Vaſſilievitch I. with the Greek princeſs Sophia; in whoſe right he is ſaid to have founded pretenſions to the Greek empire, and to have borne that device upon his arms. But we have no proof of the fact, either from the coins of this monarch, or from the accounts of Herberſtein and Poſſevinus; and Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. was undoubtedly the firſt prince under whom the device of the ſpread-eagle was ſtamped upon the coin; but hiſtory is ſilent on what occaſion it was aſſumed. The firſt rouble, which before

before was only uſed like our pound ſterling in computing, was coined by Alexèy Michaelovitch. In this claſs are three coins remarkable in the hiſtory of the empire: the firſt is a Ruſſian ducat, having the heads of the two tzars Ivan and Peter Alexievitch on one ſide; and on the other that of their ſiſter Sóphia, with the crown, ſceptre, and royal robes. The others are two coins of Ivan and Peter, which baffle the conjectures of hiſtorians: they bear no date; and as theſe princes were both joint-ſovereigns, no antiquarian has been as yet able to account for their ſeparate repreſentation, when the money, during their reign, was, excepting in this inſtance, uniformly impreſſed with both their heads. 9. The laſt claſs compriſes all the money iſſued by Peter and his ſucceſſors: upon comparing theſe with the preceding coins, it is evident to the commoneſt obſerver, how greatly the die was corrected by Peter the Great upon his return from his travels; and that ſince his time it has not been in the leaſt improved *.

The cabinet is rich in Eaſtern coins; con-

* See Eſſai ſur la Bib. p. 245. Verſuch ueber die alten Ruſſiſchen Muentzen. Journ. St. Pet. 1781.

taining, among others, an ample collection of thoſe of the caliphs of Arabia and Samarcand; thoſe of the khans of Bulgaria, of Crim Tartary, of Aſof; and of the Mongol tribe, called by the Ruſſians the Golden Horde. Among the Indian pieces are the twelve roupees, repreſenting the twelve ſigns of the Zodiac, of queen Nourmahall; whoſe hiſtory, related in the Travels of Tavernier *, has more the air of an Eaſtern tale than of a true narrative. Theſe roupees are ſo extremely rare, that the original poſſeſſor of this cabinet is ſaid to have purchaſed them for a thouſand crowns †.

In an adjoining apartment, I was ſtruck with a waxen figure of Peter the Great, as large as life, ſitting in an armed chair. The features bear the moſt exact reſemblance to the original, becauſe they were taken from a mould applied to his face when dead, and coloured in imitation of his real complexion. The eye-brows and hair are black; the eyes dark; the complexion ſwarthy; the aſpect ferocious; and the head inclined to one ſide, according to his uſual cuſtom: he was very tall; and, upon meaſuring the figure, as well

* Tavernier's Travels, Part II. p. 10.

† Backmeiſter, Eſſai ſur la Bibl. p. 254.

as

as the attitude would permit, the height was above ſix feet. It is clothed in the only full dreſs which that emperor ever wore, and is the ſame which he had on, when, with his own hand, he placed the crown upon the head of his beloved Catharine. It is a ſuit of blue ſilk richly embroidered with ſilver; the ſtockings are of fleſh-coloured ſilk, with ſilver clocks. I muſt own I ſhould have received more ſatisfaction in contemplating this great monarch's image, if it had been dreſſed in the plain green uniform, and braſs-hilted ſword, which are preſerved in the ſame room, and were worn by him at the battle of Pultava: near them is preſerved the hat uſed on the ſame occaſion, which was pierced near the crown by a muſket ball. This apartment contains alſo his trowſers, worſted ſtockings, ſhoes, and cap, which he wore at Sardam, when he worked in the dock-yard in the character of Maſter Peter. The Academy of Sciences have paid the greateſt reſpect to the memory of their illuſtrious founder, by preſerving in their muſeum the horſe which he rode at the battle of Pultava, two favourite dogs, his turning-lathe and tools, and ſeveral ſpecimens of his workmanſhip; an iron bar, on which is the following inſcription: "1724,

" Thurſday, Feb. 21, His Majeſty Peter I. " being at Olonetz, forged this bar with his " own hand." I muſt not omit three goblets of ſilver, preſented to the ſame monarch upon the launching of three ſhips of the line, which had been conſtructed under his immediate direction. One of theſe goblets, containing 65 medals of the French kings, was the gift of the empreſs Catharine, who equally availed herſelf of her huſband's virtues and foibles to win upon his affections. Another article, which engaged my attention, was the model of a veſſel of 120 guns, given by William III. to Peter I. during his reſidence in England. The emperor, who had received many marks of the king's attention and friendſhip, preſented him at parting with a diamond of great value, wrapped in a piece of common brown paper: no bad emblem of himſelf or his nation, whoſe virtues and abilities were yet under a coarſe cover.

Before I cloſe this account of the Academy of Sciences, I muſt mention the Celeſtial Sphere, known by the name of the Globe of Gottorp, now placed in a detached building, in order to preſerve it from fire. It is a large concave ſphere, eleven feet in diameter, containing a table, and ſeats for twelve perſons.

ſons. The inſide repreſents the viſible ſurface of the heavens: the ſtars and conſtellations are diſtinguiſhed, according to their reſpective magnitudes, by gilded nails. It is ſet to the meridian of Peterſburgh; and, being turned by means of a curious piece of mechaniſm, exhibits the true poſition of the ſtars, their riſing and ſetting. The outſide is a terreſtrial globe. This machine is called the Globe of Gottorp, from the original one of that name; which, at the expence of Frederic III. duke of Holſtein, was erected at Gottorp by Andrew Buſh, under the direction of Adam Olearius *. It was planned after a deſign found among the papers of the celebrated Tycho Brahe; and was preſented by Frederick IV. king of Denmark to Peter the Great, who ſaw it in 1713, and expreſſed much ſatisfaction at its curious ſtructure and mechaniſm. The carriage of ſo cumbrous a machine from Gottorp to Peterſburgh was attended with great expence and labour. It was conducted over the ſnow upon rollers and ſledges to Riga, the foreſts being in many parts cleared; and from Riga it was ſent by ſea to the new

* Buſching Erdbeſchreibung, article Gottorp. Acta Pet. for 1777, Part II. p. 7.

metropolis *. This ſphere was afterwards erected in the building of the Academy of Sciences, and was burnt in 1747. From the iron plates or carcaſe which remained, the preſent globe was conſtructed, with conſiderable additions, and placed in 1751 in its preſent poſition. It is exactly of the ſame ſize with the original; and is far preferable, becauſe all the modern improvements in geography and aſtronomy have been added. The meridian and horizon were formed by Scott, an Engliſh mechanic †.

The

* Motraye's Travels.

† Travellers are too apt, in deſcribing foreign countries, to overlook their own, and to repreſent many objects as extraordinary and peculiar, which may ſometimes be found in greater perfection at home. In order to avoid the imputation of this partial proceeding, I ſhall here add, that this aſtronomical machine is far inferior in ſize to one of the ſame kind erected at Pembroke College, in the univerſity of Cambridge, by the late Dr. Long, maſter of that ſociety, which is thus deſcribed by the Doctor himſelf:

" I have, in a room lately built in Pembroke-Hall, erect-
" ed a ſphere of 18 feet diameter, wherein above 30 perſons
" may ſit conveniently; the entrance into it is over the
" ſouth pole, by ſix ſteps: the frame of the ſphere conſiſts
" of a number of iron meridians, not complete ſemicircles,
" the northern ends of which are ſcrewed to a large round
" plate of braſs, with an hole in the centre of it; through
" this hole, from a beam in the cieling, comes the north
" pole, a round iron rod, about three inches long, and

" ſupports

The Academy of Arts was eſtabliſhed by the empreſs Elizabeth, at the ſuggeſtion of count Shuvalof, and annexed to the Academy of Sciences: the fund was £.4,000 per annum, and the foundation for 40 ſcholars.

" ſupports the upper parts of the ſphere to its proper ele-
" vation for the latitude of Cambridge; the lower part of
" the ſphere, ſo much of it as is inviſible in England, is
" cut off; and the lower or ſouthern ends of the meri-
" dians, or truncated ſemicircles, terminate on, and are
" ſcrewed down to, a ſtrong circle of oak, of about thirteen
" feet diameter, which, when the ſphere is put into mo-
" tion, runs upon large rollers of lignum vitæ, in the
" manner that the tops of ſome wind-mills are made to
" turn round. Upon the iron meridians is fixed a zodiac
" of tin painted blue, whereon the ecliptic and heliocentric
" orbits of the planets are drawn, and the conſtellations
" and ſtars traced: the great and little Bear and Draco
" are already painted in their places round the north pole;
" the reſt of the conſtellations are propoſed to follow: the
" whole is turned round with a ſmall winch, with as little
" labour as it takes to wind up a jack, though the weight
" of the iron, tin, and wooden circle, is about a thouſand
" pounds. When it is made uſe of, a planetarium will be
" placed in the middle thereof. The whole, with the floor,
" is well ſupported by a frame of large timber."

Thus far Dr. Long, before this curious piece of mechaniſm was perfected. Since the above was written, the ſphere has been completely finiſhed; all the conſtellations and ſtars of the northern hemiſphere, viſible at Cambridge, are painted in their proper places upon plates of iron joined together, which form one concave ſurface.

The

The preſent empreſs has formed it into a ſeparate inſtitution; enlarged the annual revenue to £. 12,000; and augmented the number of ſcholars to 300: ſhe has alſo conſtructed, for the uſe and accommodation of the members, a large circular building, which fronts the Neva. The ſcholars are admitted at the age of ſix, and continue until they have attained that of eighteen: they are clothed, fed, and lodged at the expence of the crown. They are all inſtructed in reading and writing, arithmetic, the French and German languages, and drawing. At the age of fourteen they are at liberty to chuſe any of the following arts, divided into four claſſes. 1. Painting, in all its branches of hiſtory, portraits, battles, and landſcapes; architecture; Moſaic; enamelling; &c. 2. Engraving on copper-plates, ſeal-cutting, &c. 3. Carving in wood, ivory, and amber. 4. Watch-making, turning, inſtrument making, caſting ſtatues in bronze and other metals, imitating gems and medals in paſte and other compoſitions, gilding, and varniſhing. Prizes are annually diſtributed to thoſe who excel in any particular art; and from thoſe who have obtained four prizes, twelve are ſelected, who are ſent abroad at the charge of the empreſs. A certain ſum is paid

to

to defray their travelling expences; and when they are ſettled in any town, they receive an annual ſalary of £. 60, which is continued during four years. There is a ſmall aſſortment of paintings for the uſe of the ſcholars; and thoſe who have made great progreſs are permitted to copy the pictures in the empreſs's collection. For the purpoſe of deſign, there are models in plaiſter of the beſt antique ſtatues in Italy, all executed at Rome, of the ſame ſize with the originals, which the artiſts of the Academy were employed to caſt in bronze. We obſerved ſeveral finiſhed pieces of drawing, painting, and ſculpture, which had much merit, and ſeemed to predict the future improvement of the arts in Ruſſia.

Though this inſtitution is indeed admirably calculated for promoting the liberal arts, and is deſerving of the higheſt encomiums; we muſt not be ſurpriſed upon conſidering the ſmall effects which have hitherto flowed from ſuch a liberal endowment. The ſcholars, for the moſt part, make a conſiderable progreſs during the time they remain in the Academy, and many improve themſelves abroad. It is remarkable, however, that the perſons of the greateſt merit often ſettle in other countries; or,

or, if they return, ſoon ſink into an indolence, which appears almoſt national. The cauſe of this failure ſeems to proceed from the little encouragement which they receive from the nation in general. The ſovereign may rear artiſts, like foreign plants, at a prodigious expence, and by conſtant cultivation; but unleſs the ſame care is continued when they are brought to maturity, they will ſicken by neglect. And it is impoſſible even for a monarch, however inclined to protect and encourage merit, or for a few of the nobility who are pleaſed to follow ſuch an illuſtrious example, to diffuſe a love for the works of art among a people, who muſt, before they can judge or be pleaſed with them, imbibe a degree of taſte which can only be acquired by experience: and if thoſe who are eminent are not in ſome meaſure diſtinguiſhed, they cannot feel that noble ſpirit of improvement and emulation which excites to excellence; nor, unleſs they are employed, can they ſubſiſt by their profeſſion. The caſe is, that the Ruſſians are by no means deficient in genius; but, as there is not yet that general zeal for the purſuit and cultivation of the arts which has taken place in other European countries; they have not ſufficient motives to animate and encou-

rage

rage a continuance of induſtry, or to gratify the purſuits of reputation and character. As the nation, however, is gradually haſtening towards a higher ſtate of civilization and refinement; theſe inſtitutions, ſtill in their infancy, muſt infallibly be productive of more extenſive and permanent effects.

The Free Oeconomical Society, or the Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, at Peterſburgh, is too important and uſeful an inſtitution to be overlooked. It owes its origin to the following occaſion: The empreſs one day at table expreſſing herſelf with warmth upon the advantages that would reſult from ſuch a ſociety, firſt ſuggeſted the idea to prince Orlof, who happened to be preſent. In conformity to the wiſhes of his imperial miſtreſs, he and fourteen other perſons, partly men of rank, and partly men of learning, aſſembled in June 1765, drew up rules, and formed themſelves into a regular ſociety. Having laid the plan before the empreſs, her majeſty returned the following anſwer, written with her own hand.

" The deſign which you have juſt formed " for the improvement of agriculture and " huſbandry, is highly agreeable to Us; and " your labours will be regarded as effectual

" proofs

" proofs of a true zeal and love for your coun-
" try. We conſider the plan and the regula-
" tions, by which you have bound yourſelves,
" as deſerving our approbation; and we gra-
" ciouſly allow you to be called The Free
" Oeconomical Society. You may reſt aſſur-
" ed, that we take your Society under our
" protection: we not only conſent, that you
" uſe our ſeal and imperial coat of arms; but,
" as a particular mark of our good will towards
" you, we permit you to bear our device in the
" centre of our imperial arms; namely, a hive,
" to which bees are bringing honey, with the
" motto 'Profitably.'

" We gratify, moreover, your Society with
" 6,000 roubles *, towards the purchaſe of a
" convenient houſe, as well for your meeting,
" as for the purpoſe of holding a library on
" ſubjects of agriculture. Your labours will,
" under the protection of Divine Providence,
" be highly advantageous to you and your
" poſterity; and we will not fail, in propor-
" tion as your zeal diſplays itſelf, to increaſe
" our good-will.

" October 31, 1765. CATHARINE."

The Society conſiſts of a preſident, who is changed every four months; and of an indefi-

* £. 1,200.

nite

nite number of members. The candidate for admiſſion muſt be propoſed by three members; and ſtands rejected or admitted by the majority of the perſons preſent. The Society is chiefly ſupported by the voluntary contributions of its members, many of whom are perſons of the firſt diſtinction and fortune. Their number, in 1781, amounted to 179. The aſſembly meets regularly once in the week, when the papers on agriculture and ſimilar ſubjects are read: thoſe which are thought worthy of publication are printed at the empreſs's expence, and the profits of the ſale are given to the Society. The work is ſold at a very low price; and twelve copies are forwarded *gratis* to the governors of each province, in order to be diſtributed in the ſeveral governments. The Tranſactions are either written or tranſlated into the Ruſſian language, and are printed in octavo. The original title was "Treatiſes of the Oeconomical "Society," which conſiſt of thirty parts, in ten volumes. The firſt part was put forth in 1765, and the laſt in 1775. The title has ſince been altered into "Continuation of the "Treatiſes, &c.;" and the work, inſtead of being publiſhed three times in the year, comes out only occaſionally. Since this alteration,

the firſt volume made its appearance in 1769, and the ſecond in 1780 *.

This Society gives annual prizes, conſiſting of gold and ſilver medals, or money, ſometimes to the amount of £. 140, for the beſt ſolutions of certain queſtions relative to agriculture, for diſcovering improvements in huſbandry, &c.

The empreſs, in the true ſpirit of this inſtitution, ſends ſeveral young men into England, in order to ſtudy practical agriculture. They are chiefly recommended to Arthur Young, Eſq. who has diſtinguiſhed himſelf by many excellent works on various branches of huſbandry; and who was elected in the moſt honourable manner a member of this ſociety.

Catharine likewiſe has lately formed an eſtabliſhment for the improvement of agriculture, which is as ſingular in its kind, as it is calculated to be highly beneficial to the country. The deſign was planned by Mr. Samborſki, a clergyman of great learning and abilities, who

* For an account of this Society, ſee Schmidt's Nachricht von der Freyen Oecon. Geſells. in his Beytrage; Bachm. Ruſſ. Bib. paſſim; and the Abhandlungen der Frey. Geſ. or the German Tranſlation of theſe Tranſactions.

ſtudied agriculture for ſeveral years in England; and who accompanied the great-duke during his late tour, that he might obſerve the different modes of farming in the ſeveral countries through which he paſſed. The plan, which is now carrying into execution, is as follows:

At Sophiſk, about three quarters of a mile from Tzarſko-Tzelo, a farm of a thouſand acres is provided with dwelling-houſes, and other neceſſary buildings. In this ſpot Mr. Samborſki, and the young men who have been educated in England, are to be ſettled. Every ſpecies of huſbandry is to be introduced; and lectures upon the theory and practice of agriculture are to be given. From each ſeminary of the empire two children of prieſts, who are likely to ſucceed their fathers in their benefices, are to be placed in this rural eſtabliſhment, that they may render themſelves acquainted with the œconomy of a farm; and be able, in due time, to inſtruct their pariſhioners. Any nobleman, who is deſirous to improve his peaſants in this branch of knowledge, will be permitted to ſend one to Sophiſk. The whole is to be under the protection and inſpection of the empreſs. As this uncommon and curious eſtabliſhment was formed ſince my

departure from Ruſſia, I am incapable of laying any further information before the reader. I can only add, that Mr. Samborſki has carried from Mr. Young's houſe, in Suffolk, ploughs, harrows, and other implements of agriculture; and is now employed in ſettling and regulating the farm of Sophiſk.

In Peterſburgh there are two ſeminaries for the education of the nobility: the one for males is called *Corps de Cadets*; and the other for females is denominated *Le Couvent des Demoiſelles Nobles*.

The houſe appropriated for the ſeminary of the land cadets, was formerly a palace belonging to prince Mentchikof, and is ſituated in the Vaſſili Oſtrof. The number of perſons reſiding in this houſe, including the cadets, amounts to at leaſt 2,000. This inſtitution owes its firſt origin to the empreſs Anne, by the advice of marſhal Munic; but it has been ſo much improved, and the fund ſo conſiderably enlarged, by Catharine II. that her majeſty may almoſt be called its foundreſs. Its annual income is £. 30,000, for the reception of 600 boys.

In the month of November 1778, when I viſited this ſchool, there were 480 nobles, and 64 gymnaſiaſts, or children of inferior ranks, who

who are deſigned to be tutors to noblemen's children, and are inſtructed in claſſical literature. The former are chiefly intended for the army, and are dreſſed in uniforms; a few excepted, who follow a civil line. The children are admitted at the age of ſix, and remain fifteen years: they are divided into five claſſes, and learn French, German, arithmetic, fortification, tactics, hiſtory, geography, &c. They alſo receive leſſons in dancing, fencing, and riding, and ſome in drawing and muſic. The boys whoſe genius prompts them to ſuch ſtudies, are provided with maſters in the Latin, Engliſh, and Tartar tongues. The cadets are divided into a certain number of companies; and are regularly trained to military exerciſes. During ſix weeks in the ſummer they form an encampment near the town; are reviewed; and perform all the manœuvres of war. Prizes are annually diſtributed among thoſe who excel, as well in their reſpective ſtudies and employments, as in their exerciſes: theſe prizes conſiſt of books, gold and ſilver medals, ribbands, and ſtars. Of thoſe whoſe merit has entitled them to ſix prizes, three are annually ſelected for the purpoſe of travelling into foreign countries, with an allowance to each of £.120 per annum.

The boys are all brought up in the hardieſt manner; they are not, even in winter, clad in furs, nor always indulged in the uſe of ſtoves. They are habituated to all kinds of exerciſes, and particularly to running and leaping: I ſaw ſome of the largeſt cadets engaged in theſe manly diverſions. At the further end of a large hall ſtood a leathern horſe, the higheſt part of which was at leaſt ſix feet: they leaped over it in every direction; ſprung over its head; vaulted upon its back; turned themſelves round upon it; poiſed themſelves upon their hands, with their head upon the ſaddle and their feet in the air; and then threw themſelves from that poſture upon the floor on their legs; with many ſimilar feats, which they performed with as much eaſe and agility as the moſt expert tumblers. Theſe exerciſes are of great uſe in ſtretching their limbs; opening their cheſts; and rendering them robuſt and active. In every department great attention is paid to cleanlineſs; and, in conſequence of this care, the boys are remarkably healthy.

Once or twice in the winter, the cadets are permitted to give a maſquerade and ball to the principal nobility. On this occaſion, ſome of the young ladies from the female ſeminary are generally

generally invited as partners for the upper boys. One of theſe entertainments, at which we were preſent, was conducted with great elegance and propriety.

The ſeminary for the education of the female nobility, uſually called *Le Couvent des Demoiſelles Nobles*, is ſituated at the extremity of the ſuburbs of Alexander Nevſki. The edifice, which is a large quadrangular building, was built by Elizabeth, and intended for a nunnery; but was wiſely converted to its preſent uſe by Catharine II. Her Majeſty has endowed it with a ſalary of £. 16,000 per annum. It was firſt opened for the reception of children in 1764: the foundation is for 200 nobles, and 240 *bourgeoiſes*, as they are called, or children of lower rank. To theſe the empreſs has added 50 ſupernumerary nobles, called *penſionaires*; and Mr. Betſkoi, the humane director of all theſe uſeful ſocieties for education, ſupports 40 *bourgeoiſes* at his own private expence. The girls are admitted between the age of five and ſix, and quit the ſeminary about eighteen. Formerly the young ladies and the *bourgeoiſes* were brought up in the ſame manner, without the leaſt attention to their difference of rank and fortune; but this plan is wiſely amended, and

they now receive an education more adapted to their reſpective ſituations in life. They are both divided into four claſſes. The firſt claſs is habited in white, the ſecond in light brown, the third in green, and the loweſt in chocolate. The dreſs of the *bourgeoiſes* is coarſer than that of the young ladies: the firſt claſs of the latter wear alſo black handkerchiefs and green aprons; while the others are clothed entirely in white. The whole ſociety learn reading, writing, accounts, and all kinds of needle-work. The young ladies are ſeparately inſtructed in hiſtory and geography: they obtain, beſide a grammatical knowledge of their native tongue, the French, German, and Italian languages; and receive leſſons in dancing, muſic, and drawing, according to the bent of their genius. In the room of theſe accompliſhments, the *bourgeoiſes* are employed in the management of houſehold affairs; they prepare and waſh their own linen; are taught to make bread; and are trained to the art of cookery. One of the apartments was hung with the deſigns, paintings, charts, genealogical tables, and other trophies of the ingenuity of the young ladies. Prizes are annually diſtributed among thoſe who diſtinguiſh themſelves;

themſelves; they conſiſt chiefly of ribbands, which are worn in bows at their ſides.

On the day in which we viſited this noble foundation, a hundred poor women dined in the hall, and were attended by the oldeſt members of the ſeminary. The young ladies diſtributed to each perſon a ſmall ſilver coin, and a few yards of linen. This ceremony was inſtituted to inculcate in their tender minds an attention to the poor, and a readineſs to relieve human diſtreſs.

The quadrangular building contains an elegant theatre, in which the young ladies occaſionally act plays. We were preſent at a repreſentation, and were greatly entertained with the performance. The theatre is an elegant circular room, neatly painted with trees in the form of a landſcape, and ſeemed capable of containing about 400 ſpectators. The pieces were, *La Servante Maitreſſe*, and *L'Oracle*; both performed in the French tongue; the firſt by young ladies of about ſixteen or ſeventeen years of age, and the laſt by thoſe of about ten or twelve. Both parties acted with ſpirit; and diſplayed great propriety both in their geſture and elocution. I was greatly aſtoniſhed at the ſurpriſing purity

with which they pronounced the French tongue. The repreſentation was concluded by a ballet, and various dances, adapted to the ages and ſtrength of the ſeveral performers. The national dance was introduced. It is executed by two perſons, who continue nearly on the ſame ſpot; but uſe a variety of actions with the arms, body, and head, while their ſhoulders are elevated and depreſſed in exact meaſure. It is expreſſive of a courtſhip; firſt languiſhing looks, coyneſs, refuſal, and invitation, &c. and at length, after the two dancers have once or twice changed places, they make a couple of circles briſkly, and conclude with an embrace.

After the play was a ball and ſupper, to which were admitted ſeveral of the nobility and foreign gentlemen, and a few of the cadets. About twelve, a collation was ſerved upon ſeveral tables, at which parties promiſcuouſly ranged themſelves. As I was walking about the room, one of the young ladies obſerving a foreigner unprovided with a ſeat, quitted the table where ſhe was ſitting, and politely invited me to make one of their company; an invitation I immediately accepted. I withdrew, with the reſt of the company, about

about two o'clock in the morning, highly delighted with the eaſe and innocent vivacity of my fair entertainers; whoſe politeneſs and affability beſpoke the elegant ſpirit of the inſtitution.

CHAP.

CHAP. VII.

Anecdotes of profeſſor Pallas.—*His travels and works.—Circumſtances of Dr.* Samuel Gmelin's *death.—Memoirs of* Guldenſtaedt.—*His travels into* Georgia *and* Imeretia.—*Reception at the courts of the princes* Heraclius *and* Solomon.—*Works of* Guldenſtaedt.

THE * preſent learned and eminent naturaliſt and traveller, Peter Simon Pallas of Peterſburgh, is ſon of Simon Pallas, a native of Johanniſburgh in Pruſſia; who was ſurgeon-major in the regiment of Doenhof at Berlin; and was appointed in 1741 profeſſor of ſurgery at Berlin, and firſt ſurgeon of the Charity Hoſpital in that city. Simon Pallas, the father, made himſelf known among the writers of phyſic, by a Treatiſe on the Operations of Surgery, publiſhed in 1763; and by a Supplement to it, On the Diſeaſes of the

* I am indebted to Mr. Pallas himſelf, for many anecdotes of his early life; and for ſome part of the remaining account of the learned profeſſor to my ingenious friend Dr. Pulteney, well known to the public by his "General View "of the Writings of Linnæus."

Bowels,

Bowels, in 1770; in which year he died, at the age of 76.

Peter Simon Pallas was born at Berlin, on the 22d of September 1741. He received the early part of his education from private tutors in his father's houſe, under whom he made an aſtoniſhing progreſs in the proſecution of his ſtudies. Among thoſe preceptors, to whom the great naturaliſt expreſſes his particular obligations, muſt be diſtinguiſhed John Martin Sheyling, who behaved to him more like a friend than a maſter. As Sheyling was himſelf not an inelegant writer, and was particularly attached to the ſtudy of poetry; the young ſcholar imbibed from his maſter's inſtructions and example a taſte for poetry, and compoſed ſeveral pieces in verſe, which have been given to the public. To the ſame perſon he was likewiſe indebted for a very early attachment to entomology. Being deſtined to ſtudy phyſic ſo early as the 13th year of his age, he entered upon a courſe of lectures on anatomy, phyſiology, botany, medicine, and ſurgery, under the profeſſors Meckel, Sprœgel, Gleditch, Roloff, and his father; and applied himſelf with great aſſiduity to anatomical diſſections. He made ſuch rapid advances in theſe ſeveral branches of ſcience, that in the beginning

beginning of 1758, he was enabled to read a courſe of public lectures on anatomy, which every ſubject, who propoſes to practiſe phyſic in the Pruſſian dominions is obliged to give, as a proof of his ſkill and proficiency. Yet, although he was thus occupied in his profeſſional labours, his indefatigable genius ſtill found leiſure to purſue the ſtudy of inſects, and other branches of zoology, for which he ſeems at a very early period to have conceived a predilection, and in which he particularly and eminently excels.

In the autumn of the ſame year, M. Pallas repaired to the univerſity of Halle; where he attended the lectures of the celebrated Segner on mathematics and phyſics, and improved his knowledge of mineralogy in the environs of that city.

In the ſpring of 1759, he removed to Gottingen; and, although a long and dangerous illneſs prevented him from proſecuting his ſtudies with his uſual ardour, yet he reaped great benefit from the inſtructions of the phyſicians Roederer and Vogel, and improved his general knowledge by the advantage of having recourſe to the books in the public library.

During his reſidence at Gottingen, he made numerous experiments on the effect of poiſons

and

and other violent remedies, applied himſelf to the diſſection of animals, and formed repeated obſervations on the worms which breed in the inteſtines. On this ſubject he compoſed a very ingenious treatiſe, under the title of *De infeſtis viventibus intra viventia*; in which tract he appears to have taken great pains to diſtinguiſh thoſe noxious animals; and has, with ſingular accuracy, deſcribed particularly thoſe worms which are found in the human body.

In July 1760, he was attracted to the univerſity of Leyden by the fame of the celebrated phyſicians and naturaliſts Albinus, Gaubius, and Muſchenbroek; and by them he was noticed as a young man of a promiſing genius and indefatigable ardour. His talents particularly recommended him to the favour of Gaubius, principal profeſſor and doctor of phyſic in that univerſity.

In December he took his doctor's degree, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by an inaugural diſſertation, in which he defended, by new experiments, the above-mentioned diſſertation compoſed at Gottingen.

During his reſidence at Leyden, his taſte for natural hiſtory became his predominant paſſion; he employed all the time which he

could ſteal from his profeſſional ſtudies in viſiting the public and private cabinets of natural hiſtory, with which Leyden abounded; and was particularly charmed with the collection of Gronovius, which he repeatedly examined.

Having viſited the principal cities of Holland, he directed his courſe to London, where he arrived in July 1761. The principal intention of his journey to England was to improve his knowledge of medicine and ſurgery, and to viſit the hoſpitals. But he was now ſo much abſorbed in his paſſion for natural hiſtory, that he neglected every other purſuit, and gave himſelf up totally to this favourite branch of ſcience. At this juncture his zeal was ſo indefatigable, that he ſeemed to have no other occupation by day than to examine the various collections of natural hiſtory, and to peruſe the principal books which he could procure on that ſubject; nay, ſo eager was he in theſe purſuits, that he frequently employed the greateſt part of the night, and occaſionally even whole nights together, whenever he met with any new publications, which awakened his curioſity, or which intereſted his reſearches. With a view of extending his knowledge in this way, he took ſeveral journies to the ſea-coaſts, and particularly in Suſſex; and I have

often heard him lament with regret, that the ſcantineſs of his income would not permit him to extend his reſearches to the principal parts of Great Britain.

Being at length ſummoned by his father to return to Berlin, he quitted London with regret in the latter end of April 1762; and repaired to Harwich in order to embark for Holland. Being there fortunately detained for ſeveral days by contrary winds, he embraced that opportunity of examining the ſea-coaſt, and collecting various marine productions. On the 13th of May, he landed in Holland; and paſſing through the Hague, Leyden, and Amſterdam, he continued his route through the circle of Weſtphalia, then occupied by the Pruſſian and Auſtrian troops, and arrived at Berlin on the 12th of June.

In order to begin the practice of his profeſſion, his father ſent him to Hanover for the purpoſe of procuring the place of ſurgeon in the allied army: but as, upon his arrival in that city, in the month of July, the peace was on the point of being concluded; he returned by Wolfenbottle, Brunſwic, and Helmſtaedt to Berlin. There he paſſed a year, which he chiefly employed in preparing materials for a *Fauna Inſectorum Marchica*; or, a Deſcription of the Inſects in the March of Brandenburgh;

burgh; the manuſcript of which now remains unpubliſhed in the poſſeſſion of profeſſor Sandfort, now at Leyden, becauſe the author was ſo diffident as not to eſteem it worthy of publication.

Animated by his predilection for natural hiſtory, and encouraged by the patronage and favour of Gaubius, he at length reluctantly extorted his father's conſent to ſettle in Holland. On the 30th of July he departed from Berlin, and arrived in the month of September at the Hague, where he ſeems to have obtained a ſettlement through the intereſt and recommendation of Gaubius.

His reputation as a man of ſcience was by this time ſo well eſtabliſhed, that he was this year elected fellow of the Royal Society of London; and in the following year member of the academy *Des Curieux de la Nature*; to both of which ſocieties he had previouſly ſent ſome very intereſting and curious papers.

The intimacy he now formed with the moſt celebrated naturaliſts in Holland, and particularly with thoſe of the Hague, who had juſt began to form a literary ſociety; the free acceſs which he had to the muſeum of the Prince of Orange, and other curious cabinets; the ſyſtematic catalogues of thoſe collections which he

he drew up, and ſeveral of which he gave to the public, contributed to advance his knowledge of the productions of nature in the various parts of the globe; and to collect ſuch materials as gave birth to thoſe accurate compoſitions on zoology, which have deſervedly diſtinguiſhed him as the firſt zoologiſt of Europe. One of his firſt works in this branch of ſcience, which rendered him eminently conſpicuous, was his *Elenchus Zoophytorum*, 8vo.

The attention which Dr. Pallas had beſtowed on the Zoophytes, or animal-plants, in the inveſtigation of the worms which infeſt the human body, and particularly the uncommon nature of the *tænia*, or tape-worm, as he acknowledges, ſeems to have led him into this line of natural ſcience, and in which he has ſhewn a great degree of accuracy, and ſurpriſing induſtry. In this work, which is printed in octavo, pp. 451, after having treated on the nature of theſe ambiguous kinds of animals in a general way, and given the various opinions of authors relating to the place they ought to hold in the Syſtem of Nature, he deſcribes, from his own inſpection, more than 270 ſpecies of thoſe worms and animalcules, which are known under the various generical names of polypes, corals, ma-

drepores, corallines, ſea-pens, *tænia*, or tape-worm, ſponges, ſea-fans, &c.

The free acceſs which he had to the muſeum of the prince of Orange, and other curious collections in Holland, enabled him to enrich his work with the deſcription of a great variety of theſe productions, which were brought from both Indies. He has deſcribed each ſpecies at large, and given it a new name, characteriſtic of its real diſtinctions: and (what eſpecially increaſes the value of his work) he has, with wonderful induſtry, extricated, as far as poſſible, the ſynonyms of former authors, both ancient and modern; thus rendering his book highly uſeful to thoſe who are curious in this branch of natural hiſtory.

In a dedication to his *Miſcellanea Zoologica*, publiſhed in the ſame year, and which I ſhall hereafter more fully mention, the author lays before the Prince of Orange a plan for a voyage to the Cape of Good Hope, and to the other Dutch ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies; and which, impelled by an ardour for ſcientific knowledge, he offered to undertake and ſuperintend. This plan, calculated to improve our acquaintance with the natural hiſtory of thoſe regions, was ſtrongly recommended by Gaubius, and approved by the prince; but was

prevented from being carried into execution by the author's father, who not only refuſed his conſent to his taking ſuch a diſtant expedition, but even recalled him to Berlin: in obedience to his father's wiſhes, but with great reluctance, he quitted Holland in November 1766.

On his return to Berlin, his only conſolation in being ſeparated from his friends in Holland, and in having loſt ſo many opportunities of improving himſelf in natural hiſtory, conſiſted in putting into order the numerous materials he had collected and the obſervations he had never ceaſed to form, and in giving them to the public. He had, however, ſcarcely begun to publiſh his *Spicilegia Zoologica* before he was invited by the empreſs Catharine II. to accept of the profeſſorſhip of natural hiſtory in the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Peterſhurgh. Although in this inſtance his father and relations again refuſed their conſent; yet the author's ardent zeal for his favourite ſcience, and an irreſiſtible deſire to viſit regions ſo little known, and abounding in the productions of nature, induced him, without a moment's heſitation, to accede to the invitation; and to haſten his departure for a country, where his curioſity was ſo likely to

be amply gratified. He accordingly quitted Berlin in June 1767, and arrived at Peterſburgh on the 10th of Auguſt.

He made his appearance among the Ruſſians at a critical period. The empreſs had already ordered the Academy of Sciences to ſend aſtronomers into various parts of the Ruſſian empire, to obſerve the tranſit of Venus over the ſun's diſk, in 1769. Being juſt returned from a voyage down the Volga, and from viſiting the interior provinces of European Ruſſia, the enlightened ſovereign had perceived the deficiency of the topographical and geographical accounts, and anticipated the advantage of deputing learned and ſkilful men to viſit the diſtant provinces of her extenſive dominions; with a view to enlarge the bounds of ſcience, and extend the knowledge of uſeful arts among the natives. For this purpoſe Catharine had directed the Academy to ſend, in company with the aſtronomers, the moſt able naturaliſts and philoſophers. Pallas inſtantly offered to accompany this expedition; and was as eagerly accepted. He was immediately charged with drawing out general inſtructions for the naturaliſts, and was gratified with the choice of his aſſociates. To him was ſubmitted, at his own requeſt, the conduct of the expedition to the eaſt

eaſt of the Volga, and towards the extreme parts of Siberia; and he was the moſt calculated for that expedition, as the elder Gmelin, who had been his precurſor in thoſe regions, had almoſt entirely neglected the zoology of thoſe remote diſtricts. Pallas employed the winter previous to his departure in forming a ſyſtematic catalogue of the animals in the cabinet of the Academy of Sciences; in putting into order the celebrated collection of profeſſor Breyn of Dantzic, lately purchaſed by prince Orlof; in preparing for the preſs ſix numbers of his *Spicilegia Zoologica*, which were printed during his abſence under the direction of Dr. Martin; and in forming the neceſſary arrangements and notices for his intended expedition.

At length, in June 1768, he quitted Peterſburgh, in company with Meſſrs. Falk, Lepekin, and Gueldenſtaedt, as his aſſociates: paſſed through Moſcow, Vlodimir, Kaſimof, Muroni, Arſamas, to Caſan; and, having examined great part of that province, wintered at Simbirſk. From thence he departed in March of the following year; and penetrated through Samara, and Orenburgh, as far as Gurief, a ſmall Ruſſian fortreſs, ſituated at the mouth of the river Yaic, or Ural. There he examined

mined the confines of Calmuc Tartary, and the neighbouring ſhores of the Caſpian; and, returning through the province of Orenburgh, paſſed the ſecond winter at Ufa. After ſeveral expeditions in the adjacent parts of that province, he left Ufa on the 16th of May 1770; proſecuted his route through the Uralian mountains to Catharinenburgh; viſited the mines of that diſtrict; proceeded to Tcheliabinſk, a ſmall fortreſs in the government of Orenburgh; and in December made an excurſion as far as Tobolſk. The next year he was employed in traverſing the Altai Mountains, and in tracing the courſe of the Irtiſh up to Omſk and Kolyvan; where having inſpected the celebrated ſilver-mines, he made for Tomſk; and finiſhed that year's expedition at Kraſnojarſk, a town upon the Yeniſèi. In that place, ſituated only in the 56th degree of north latitude, the cold was ſo intenſe, that the learned profeſſor was witneſs to the natural freezing of quickſilver; which curious phænomenon he has minutely deſcribed *. From Kraſnojarſk he iſſued on the 7th of March 1772;

* See Pallas Reiſe, P. III. p. 417—419; and a tranſlation of this remarkable paſſage, in V. I. p. 227 of Chemical Eſſays, by Dr. Watſon, biſhop of Landaff.

and

and proceeded by Irkutſk, and acroſs the Lake Baikal, to Udinſk, Selenginſk, and Kiakta, where the trade between Ruſſia and China is principally carried on. Having penetrated into that part of Dauria which is ſituated in the ſouth-eaſternmoſt part of Siberia, he journeyed between the rivers Ingoda and Argoon, at no great diſtance from the Amoor: thence tracing the lines which ſeparate the Ruſſian empire from the Mongol hordes dependent upon China, he returned to Selenginſk; and again wintered at Kraſnojarſk. In the ſummer of 1773, he viſited Tara, Yaitſk, and Aſtracan; and concluded that year's route at Tzaritzin, a town upon the Volga; from whence he continued his journey in the enſuing ſpring, and arrived at Peterſburgh on the 30th of July 1774, after an abſence of ſix years.

The account of this extenſive and intereſting tour was publiſhed by Mr. Pallas, in three parts *, containing 2004 pages, in five volumes in quarto, which has greatly contributed to extend his fame and eſtabliſh his character. The author, in this valuable work,

* *Reiſe durch verſchiedenen Provinzen des Ruſſiſchen Reichs.*

has entered into a geographical and topographical deſcription of the provinces, towns, and villages which he viſited in his tour, accompanied with an accurate account of their antiquities, hiſtory, productions, and commerce. He has diſcriminated many of the tribes who wander over the various diſtricts, and near the confines of Siberia; and detailed, with peculiar preciſion, their cuſtoms, manners, and languages: he has alſo rendered his travels invaluable to the naturaliſt, from the many important diſcoveries in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms, with which he has enriched the ſcience of natural hiſtory. Theſe travels are written in the German language; but the author has added to each part an appendix in the Latin tongue, which contain near 400 ſcientific deſcriptions of ſeveral quadrupeds, birds, fiſh, inſects, and plants. He has alſo greatly contributed to increaſe the utility of his performance by 9 charts, and 123 engravings of various antiquities, of ſeveral Tartar dreſſes and idols, and of many animals and plants. The curious naturaliſts and philoſophers of England could not fail conſidering a tranſlation of theſe travels, and thoſe of Georgi, Lepekin, and Gmelin, the two former whereof were made, and the latter were printed, under the inſpection

inſpection of Pallas, as a valuable addition to our knowledge of thoſe diſtant parts of the globe.

Expeditions of this kind into inhoſpitable regions, among vagrant and almoſt barbarous nations, are full of danger; as had been ſufficiently experienced by Muller, and Gmelin the elder, in the reign of the empreſs Anne; and nothing but the moſt extenſive ardour for ſcience can ſtimulate men to ſuch undertakings. In that expedition M. De l'Iſle and Steller periſhed; and, as if theſe ſchemes were deſtined to ill fate, Dr. S. Gmelin, after having loſt many of his papers and collections, ſunk under grief and diſeaſe, and expired in a ſmall village of Mount Caucaſus, in 1774: Falk died in the courſe of the journey; and profeſſor Lowitz was wantonly maſſacred by the inhuman Pugatchef.

Mr. Pallas fortunately returned, but not without having endured many hardſhips, and having narrowly eſcaped from the moſt imminent dangers; as we may conclude by the manner in which he finiſhes the account of his travels. "And on the 30th of July I reached Peterſburgh, with a very enfeebled body and grey hairs, though only in the three-and-thirtieth year of my age; but yet much ſtronger

" ſtronger than when I was in Siberia; and " full of grateful acknowledgements to Pro- " vidence, for having hitherto preſerved and " delivered me from numberleſs perils."

Mr. Pallas, known to the generality of the Engliſh readers only as a great naturaliſt, deſerves a conſiderable place among thoſe writers who have ſucceeded in developing the complicated hiſtory of the roving tribes that are ſcattered over thoſe extenſive regions which ſtretch from the heart of Siberia to the northern limits of India. The profeſſor has, in a recent publication, intitled, Collections upon the Political, Phyſical, and Civil Hiſtory of the Mongol Tribes *, thrown new light upon the annals of a people, whoſe anceſtors conquered Ruſſia, China, Perſia, and Indoſtan; and, at more than one period, eſtabliſhed, perhaps, a larger empire than ever was poſſeſſed by any ſingle nation. The materials for this publication he collected, partly during an intercourſe with the Mongols, Burats, and Calmucs, and partly from the communications of Muller and Gmelin.

Hitherto moſt authors who have written upon theſe Aſiatic hordes, have called them

* *Samlungen Hiſt. Nachrichten ueber Mongoliſchen Volkerchaften.*

all

all indiſcriminately by the name of Tartars: but this erroneous appellation is rectified by Mr. Pallas, who proves unqueſtionably that the Mongol tribes are a diſtinct race from the Tartars; that they differ from them in their features, language, and government; and reſemble them in nothing but in a ſimilar inclination to a roving life. This primitive nation of Aſia, whoſe origin, hiſtory, and preſent ſtate form the ſubject of this intereſting work, dates its celebrity from its founder Zinghis Khan; whoſe exploits and ſovereignty have been already mentioned. When his vaſt dominions fell to pieces under his ſucceſſors in the 16th century; the Mongol and Tartar hordes, who had compoſed one empire, again ſeparated, and have ſince continued diſtinct and independent. The Mongol hordes Mr. Pallas divides into three principal branches, called Mongols, Oerats or Calmucs, and Burats; and each of theſe he ſeparately deſcribes with that preciſion and accuracy which diſtinguiſh all his writings. This volume, deſcribing their hiſtorical, civil, and political ſtate, is to be followed by a ſecond; that will contain a very circumſtantial account of their religious eſtabliſhment, which conſiſts in the worſhip of the Dalai Lama. It is the religion

of

of Thibet, and of the Manſhur ſovereigns who now ſit upon the throne of China. "A work," as Mr. Tooke juſtly obſerves, "that will enrich the ſtock of human knowledge with "diſcoveries, the greateſt part entirely new, "and which no perſon but Mr. Pallas is able "to communicate *."

In the ſame year in which the profeſſor printed his *Elenchus Zoophytorum*, he alſo publiſhed a treatiſe under the title of *Miſcellanea Zoologica quibus novæ imprimis atque obſcuræ Animalium Species deſcribuntur, et Obſervationibus Iconibuſque illuſtrantur*. Hagæ Com. pp. 118. with 14 copper-plates. This work is in a great meaſure incorporated into a ſubſequent publication, made the next year on his return to Berlin, intitled, *Spicilegia Zoologica*; and which has been continued in numbers, or *faſciculi*, at uncertain periods, until 1780, when the 14th was delivered. It contains, beſide the letter-preſs, 72 plates, and has reflected the higheſt credit upon the author, as a moſt careful obſerver and critic in zoology. It comprehends a rich magazine of knowledge for future writers, not only from the great number of animals diſcovered in conſequence

* Tooke's Ruſſia Illuſtrata, Introd. p. cxi.

of

of his travels through the Ruſſian empire; but alſo from a vaſt fund of new obſervations on thoſe before known, and particularly from the light he has thrown upon the deſcent of ſeveral of the domeſticated kinds, the origin of which had been hitherto involved in the utmoſt obſcurity. The works of count Buffon, the illuſtrious French zoologiſt, amply teſtify the labours of Pallas in the ſupplementary volumes; and our own excellent writer on the ſame ſubject, Mr. Pennant, makes frequent acknowledgements of his obligations to the ſame ſource, particularly for his Hiſtory of Quadrupeds and Arctic Zoology.

In June 1777 the learned profeſſor read before the Academy of Peterſburgh, in a meeting at which the king of Sweden was preſent, a Diſſertation on the Formation of Mountains, and the Changes which this Globe has undergone, more particularly as it appears in the Ruſſian empire. This curious treatiſe, written in the French tongue, was printed at St. Peterſburgh; and a tranſlation of it is given by Mr. Tooke in his Ruſſia Illuſtrata. In 1778 he publiſhed *Novæ Species Quadrupedem e Glirium Ordine.* This performance, printed at Erlang in quarto, contains 388 pages and 27 plates, and deſcribes numbers of the rat genus and their anatomy. In 1781 he brought out

out *Enumeratio Plantarum quæ in Horto Procopii à Demidof Moſcuâ vigent* (Pet. octavo); or, Catalogue of the Plants in Mr. Demidof's Gardens at Moſcow; and in the ſame year he gave to the public two volumes, in octavo, of an intereſting work in the German tongue, called, *Neue Nordiſche Beytrage*, &c. or New Northern Collections on various Subjects of Geography, Natural Hiſtory, and Agriculture; which have been followed by two additional volumes.

In 1782 he put forth two *faſciculi*, or numbers, of *Icones Inſectarum præſertim Ruſſiæ Siberiæque peculiarium*, &c. quarto, Erlang; or, Figures of Inſects, principally of thoſe which are peculiar to Ruſſia and Siberia, accompanied with deſcriptions and illuſtrations. Theſe two numbers treat of the *ſcarabæi, curculiones, tenebriones, bupeſtres, meloedes, cerambyces*, with ſix plates, containing coloured figures of 180 inſects of thoſe genera.

In 1784 he publiſhed the firſt number of a *Flora Ruſſica* *; or, a Deſcription of the Plants of the whole Ruſſian empire; a ſplendid work, which is executed at the empreſs's

* The botanical reader is referred to the Gentleman's Magazine for Auguſt 1785, for a ſcientific account of the Flora Ruſſica; of which no other recommendation need be given, than that it was written by Dr. Pulteney.

expence,

expence, and owes its origin to the following circumſtance:

Her majeſty inquired of Mr. Pallas the Ruſſian names of ſeveral plants; the author ſent ſome dried ſpecimens, which he accompanied with a ſhort deſcription of each plant, and a diſſertation on their uſes. Catharine, pleaſed with the method, ordered him to deſcribe in the ſame manner the botany of the whole Ruſſian empire; and to ſpare no expence in the execution of the work. The ſecond number of this learned and magnificent work came out in 1789.

The reviſal of a curious, though leſs intereſting publication, which ſhews the verſatility of the author's talents, will unfortunately contribute to delay the completion of the Flora Ruſſica and his zoological reſearches; an univerſal vocabulary, of which he is to ſuperintend the impreſſion, and which the empreſs of Ruſſia is collecting from all quarters of the globe.

Excluſive of theſe ſeparate publications, he has printed in the acts of the Imperial Academy of Sciences, various zoological and botanical diſſertations, which prove his accurate knowledge of natural hiſtory.

It cannot but be pleaſing to the lovers of ſcience to be informed, that Mr. Pallas has been

been lately diſtinguiſhed with a mark of imperial favour, being appointed member of the board of mines, with an additional appointment of £. 200 per annum, and honoured with the order of St. Volodimir. The empreſs alſo purchaſed his ample collection of natural hiſtory, in a manner highly flattering to the author, and honourable to herſelf. Being informed that Mr. Pallas was deſirous to diſpoſe of that collection, her majeſty ſent word, that her country ſhould not be deprived of ſo curious a cabinet; that ſhe would be the purchaſer, and ordered him to make out the catalogue and fix the price. He accordingly named 15,000 roubles. Having examined the catalogue, ſhe added with her own hand, "Mr. "Pallas underſtands natural hiſtory much "better than figures; he ought to have charged 20,000 inſtead of 15,000 roubles for "ſo many valuable articles. The empreſs, "however, takes upon herſelf to correct the "miſtake; and hereby orders her treaſurer to "pay 20,000 roubles. At the ſame time Mr. "Pallas ſhall not be deprived of his collection, "which ſhall ſtill continue to be in his own "poſſeſſion during his life, as he ſo well un-"derſtands how to render it moſt uſeful to "mankind."

As the care of putting into order and publiſhing

liſhing the papers of Gmelin and Guldenſtaedt is conſigned to Mr. Pallas; I ſhall cloſe this chapter with a ſhort account of thoſe learned profeſſors.

Dr. Samuel Gmelin, profeſſor at Tubingen, and afterwards member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at Peterſburgh, commenced his travels in June 1768; and having traverſed the provinces of Moſcow, Voronetz, New Ruſſia, Azof, Caſan, and Aſtracan, he viſited, in the years 1770 and 1771, the different harbours of the Caſpian; and examined with peculiar attention thoſe parts of the Perſian provinces which border upon that ſea; of which he has given a circumſtantial account in the three volumes of his travels already publiſhed. Actuated by a zeal for extending his obſervations, he attempted to paſs through the weſtern provinces of Perſia, which are in a perpetual ſtate of warfare, and infeſted by numerous banditti.

Upon this expedition he quitted, in the month of April 1772, Einzellee, a ſmall trading place in Ghilan, upon the ſouthern ſhore of the Caſpian; and, on account of many difficulties and dangers, did not, until the ſecond of December 1773, reach Sallian, a town ſituated upon the mouth of the river Koor.

From thence he proceeded to Baku and Kuba, in the province of Shirvan; where he met with a friendly reception from Ali Feth Khan, the ſovereign of that diſtrict. After he had been joined by twenty Uralian Coſſacs, and when he was only four days journey from the Ruſſian fortreſs Kiſlar; he and his companions were, on the 5th of February 1774, arreſted by order of Uſmèi Khan, a petty Tartar prince, through whoſe territories he was obliged to paſs. Uſmèi urged as a pretence for this arreſt, that thirty years ago ſeveral families had eſcaped from his dominions, and had found an aſylum in the Ruſſian territories; adding, that Gmelin ſhould not be releaſed until theſe families were reſtored. The profeſſor was removed from priſon to priſon; and at length, wearied out with continual perſecutions, he expired on the 27th of July at Achmet-Kent, a village of Mount Caucaſus: his death was occaſioned partly by vexation for the loſs of ſeveral papers and collections, and partly by diſorders contracted from the fatigues of his long journey. Some of his papers had been ſent to Kiſlar during his imprisonment; and the others were not without great difficulty reſcued from the hands of the barbarian who had detained him in captivity.

tivity *. The arrangement of theſe papers, which will form a fourth volume of his travels, was at firſt conſigned to the care of Guldenſtaedt, but upon his death has been transferred to Mr. Pallas.

John Anthony Guldenſtaedt was born at Riga, on the 26th of April 1745; received the rudiments of his education in that town; and in 1763 was admitted into the medical college of Berlin. He completed his ſtudies at Franckfort upon the Oder; and in 1767 received the degree of doctor of phyſic in that univerſity. On account of his knowledge of foreign languages, and the conſiderable progreſs he had made in natural hiſtory, he was conſidered as a fit perſon to engage in the expeditions which were planned by the Imperial Academy. Being invited to Peterſburgh, he arrived in that city in 1768; was created adjunct of the Academy; and afterwards, in 1770, member of that ſociety, and profeſſor of natural hiſtory. In June 1768 he ſet out upon his travels, and was abſent ſeven years. From Moſcow, where he continued till March 1769, he paſſed to Voronetz, Tzaritzin, Aſtracan, and Kiſlar, a fortreſs upon the weſtern

* See Bach. Ruſſ. Bibl. for 1775, p. 50.

ſhore of the Caſpian, and cloſe to the confines of Perſia. In 1770 he examined the diſtricts watered by the rivers Terek, Sunſha, and Alkſai, in the eaſtern extremity of Caucaſus; and in the courſe of the enſuing year penetrated into Oſſetia, in the higheſt part of the ſame mountain; where he collected vocabularies of the languages ſpoken in thoſe regions; made enquiries into the hiſtory of the people; and diſcovered ſome traces of Chriſtianity among them. Having viſited Cabarda, and the northern chain of the Caucaſus, he proceeded to Georgia; and was admitted to an audience of prince Heraclius, who was encamped about ten miles from Tefflis.

Prince Heraclius *, or, as he is called, the tzar Iracli, who made ſo bold a ſtand againſt the Turks in the laſt war between the Porte and Ruſſia, and now poſſeſſes all Georgia, Kaketia, and the two ſmall diſtricts of Bortſhal and Koſak, which were ceded to him by Nadir Shah, is above ſixty years old; of a middle ſize; with a long countenance; a dark complexion; large eyes; and a ſmall beard. He paſſed his youth at the court and in the army of the celebrated Nadir Shah; where he con-

* See Journ. St. Pet. 1779, p. 328.

tracted

tracted a fondneſs for Perſian cuſtoms and manners, which he has introduced into his kingdom. He has ſeven ſons and ſix daughters. He is much revered and dreaded by the Perſian khans, his neighbours; and is uſually choſen to mediate between them in their diſputes with each other. When they are at war, he ſupports one of the parties with a few troops, who diffuſe a ſpirit and courage among the reſt, becauſe the Georgian ſoldiers are eſteemed the braveſt of thoſe parts; and prince Heraclius himſelf is renowned for his courage and military ſkill. When on horſeback he has always a pair of loaded piſtols at his girdle; and, if the enemy is near, a muſket ſlung over his ſhoulder. In all engagements he is the foremoſt to give examples of perſonal bravery; and frequently charges the enemy at the head of his troops, with the ſabre in his hand. He loves pomp and expence; he has adopted the dreſs of Perſia; and regulates his court after the manner of that country. From the example of the Ruſſian troops, who were quartered in Georgia during the laſt Turkiſh war, he has learnt the uſe of plates, knives, and forks, diſhes, and houſehold furniture, &c. Although his revenues are very ſmall, ſcarcely exceeding £. 50,000 per annum, yet he con-

trives to maintain a ſtanding army of about 6,000 men.

The profeſſor accompanied prince Heraclius in a campaign along the banks of the river Koor, 80 miles into the interior part of Georgia; and returned with him to Tefflis. All the houſes of that capital are of ſtone, with flat roofs, which ſerve, according to the cuſtom of the Eaſt, as walks for the women. The buildings are neat and clean; but the ſtreets are exceedingly dirty and narrow. The town contains one Roman Catholic, thirteen Greek, and ſeven Armenian churches. Having paſſed the winter in Tefflis, and in examining the adjacent country, he followed in ſpring the prince to the province of Kaketia; and explored the ſouthern diſtricts inhabited by the Turcoman Tartars, and ſubject to Heraclius, in the company of a Georgian magnate, whom he had cured of a dangerous diſorder. In July he paſſed into Imeretia; a country which lies between the Caſpian and Black Seas, and is bounded on the eaſt by Georgia, on the north by Oſſetia, on the weſt by Mingrelia, and on the ſouth by the Turkiſh dominions.

The * ſovereign of this diſtrict, the prince

* See Journ. St. Pet. p. 336.

or

of tzar Solomon *, having upon his acceſſion forbidden the ſcandalous traffic practiſed by the noblemen of ſelling their peaſants, greatly offended the Turks, who gained by that ſpecies of commerce. Being by their intrigues driven from his throne, and compelled to find an aſylum in the woods and mountains, he lived like a wild man, for ſixteen years, in caverns and holes; and frequently by his perſonal courage eſcaped aſſaſſination, until he was reinſtated in his dominions by the Ruſſians in the late war. The prince wears uſually a coarſe dreſs of a brown colour, with a muſket upon his ſhoulder; but upon ſolemn occaſions he puts on a robe of rich gold brocade, and hangs round his neck a ſilver chain. He is diſtinguiſhed from his ſubjects by riding upon an aſs, perhaps the only one in Imeretia, and by wearing boots. He has no regular troops; but can collect a deſultory and undiſciplined army of 6,000 men, with no artillery. Theſe troops are drawn together by the ſound of the trumpet: in other reſpects the prince's orders are iſſued in the following manner at the markets, which are held every Friday. One of

* Solomon died in 1783, and was ſucceeded by his ſon David.

his ſervants aſcends a tree near the place of meeting, and proclaims the edict with a loud voice; which is communicated to the people by each perſon upon his return to the place of his abode. His ſubjects are of the Greek religion.

In the almoſt unknown dominions of this prince, who, from his gratitude to Ruſſia, afforded to Guldenſtaedt every aſſiſtance in his power, the profeſſor penetrated into the middle chain of Mount Caucaſus; viſited the confines of Mingrelia, Middle Georgia, and Eaſtern and Lower Imeretia; and, after eſcaping many imminent dangers from the banditti of thoſe parts, fortunately returned to Kiſlar on the 18th of November; where he paſſed the winter, collecting various information concerning the neighbouring Tartar tribes of the Caucaſus, and particularly the Leſgees. In the following ſummer he journeyed to Cabarda Major; continued his courſe to Mount Beſhtan, the higheſt point of the firſt ridge of the Caucaſus; inſpected the mines of Madſhar; and went to Tcherkaſk upon the Don. From thence he made expeditions to Azof and Taganroc, and then along the new limits to the Dnieper: he finiſhed this year's route at Krementſhuk, in the government of New Ruſſia.

Ruſſia. In the enſuing ſpring he was proceeding to Crim Tartary; but receiving an order of recal, he returned through the Ukraine to Moſcow and Peterſburgh, where he arrived in the month of March 1775 *.

Upon his return he was employed in arranging his papers; but, before he could finiſh them for the preſs, was ſeized with a violent fever, which proved mortal, and carried him to the grave in the month of March 1781.

* For an account of Guldenſtaedt, ſee Ruſſ. Bib. Vol. I. p. 49. 102. 301. 548. Vol. II. p. 221. 456. Vol. III. p. 72. 421. Hiſt. des Decouvertes, &c. Introd. p. 27. and Nachricht von den Lebens-Umſtanden des Herrn Prof. Guldenſtaedt, in Journ. St. Pet. for 1781.

CHAP.

CHAP. VIII.

Origin of the Sclavonian *alphabet.—Its introduction into* Ruſſia.—*The ſmall progreſs made by the* Ruſſians *in the arts and ſciences owing neither to want of genius nor to the effects of climate.—Inquiry into the riſe and progreſs of* Ruſſian *literature.*—I. *Hiſtorians.*—Neſtor, *and his continuators.*—Cyril.—Makari.—Nicon.—Theophanes.—Khilkof.—Tatiſchef.—Sherebatof.—*Remarks on* Voltaire's *Life of* Peter the Great.—II. *Poets.*—Lomonozof.—*Digreſſion concerning the* Ruſſian *ſtage.*—Volkof.—Sumorokof.—Kheraſkof.—*His epic poem the* Roſſiada.—Ruſſian *tranſlations.*—*Claſſical learning.*

THE invention of the Sclavonian characters is generally attributed to Conſtantine, a Greek philoſopher, afterwards more known by the name of Cyril, which he aſſumed when he turned monk. About the middle of the 9th century, Cyril and his brother Methodius were ſent from Conſtantinople by Michael III. to plant the Goſpel among the Sclavonian nations inhabiting the countries

tries bordering upon the Danube, now called Hungary and Bulgaria, and thoſe which were ſettled in Bohemia and Moravia. As thoſe barbarous nations ſcarcely knew the uſe of letters, Cyril compoſed for them an alphabet, and tranſlated ſeveral religious books into their tongue *. The greateſt part of the characters were the capitals of the Greek alphabet, the ſame uſually employed in writing; to which he added a few others, in order to expreſs ſeveral ſounds that were peculiar to the Sclavonian language. Notwithſtanding the difficulty of aſcertaining the firſt formation of any alphabet, the probability of this account ſeems to be eſtabliſhed from the perfect ſimilarity which ſubſiſts between the characters in the moſt ancient eccleſiaſtical writings, and thoſe in a copy of a Greek manuſcript of the ninth century, publiſhed by Montfaucon †. Another proof

* "Petentibus deinde ut literis inſtruerentur, Michael "Imp. Methodium et Conſtantinum, Leonis Theſſalo- "nicenſis filios, miſit; qui cum permultos libros conver- "tiſſent Slavonicè, Methodius Moraviæ epiſcopatum adiit, "Conſtantinus monachatum induit et nomen Cyrilli." Extracted by Bayer from an ancient annaliſt, in his ingenious diſſertation De Ruſſorum in Comm. Petrop. VI. p. 366.

† Palæographia Græca, p. 408. Although I have only a ſuperficial knowledge of the Sclavonian alphabet, yet merely

proof that Cyril's alphabet was formed from the Greek, may be derived from the following circumſtances; that moſt of thoſe Sclavonian nations, who received Chriſtianity from the Greeks, and have retained the Greek religion, ſtill make uſe of his characters; while the other people of that tribe, who were either firſt converted by the Germans or Italians, or who afterwards adopted the Roman Catholic tenets, employ either the German or Roman alphabet *,

That

merely from that ſlight acquaintance, upon comparing the above-mentioned Greek manuſcript, written in the ninth century, with the Cyrilian characters; I was able to trace ſo perfect a ſimilarity, as to make out ſeveral words, notwithſtanding the abbreviations.

* Beſide the Ruſſians, the Sclavonians dwelling in Dalmatia, and in the iſlands under the dominion of Venice, who are of the Greek religion, ſtill uſe the Cyrilian characters. The ſame were employed by all the nations of Hungary, Sclavonia, Croatia, Dalmatia, and others in the Auſtrian territories; but as the Roman Catholic perſuaſion has gained ground amongſt them, they have lately begun to adopt the Roman letters; while the Sclavonian people ſubject to the Turks, namely, the inhabitants of Albania, Servia, Boſnia, Bulgaria, who are of the Greek religion, preſerve the Cyrilian alphabet. The Bohemians, who ſoon after their firſt converſion quitted the Greek religion, and were afterwards turned by the Germans to the Roman Catholic ſect, uſe the German or Gothic characters,

That tribe of Sclavonians, called Ruſſians, when they iſſued from the banks of the Danube in the ninth century, and laid the foundation of this empire, either brought with them, if they knew the uſe of letters, the Cyrilian alphabet; or afterwards adopted it, when converted to Chriſtianity; and when the Sclavonian Bible, tranſlated by Cyril in the ſame century, was introduced amongſt them. Theſe characters are occaſionally written, like the oldeſt Greek and Roman manuſcripts, of equal ſize, at equal diſtances, without connection or ſtops, and without diſtinction of words.

The earlieſt Sclavonian book ever publiſhed was a Ruſſian tranſlation of the Pentateuch, printed in the Cyrilian alphabet at Prague in 1519 *: the ſame letters were introduced into Ruſſia upon the eſtabliſhment of the firſt preſs at Moſcow; and they continued to be uſed, not only for eccleſiaſtical publications, but

racters, which were alſo in uſe among the Poles, equally indebted to the Germans for the firſt introduction of Chriſtianity amongſt them; but the Poles have lately, in moſt of their publications, adopted the Roman alphabet. See the preface to the Neue Slavoniſch und Deutche Grammatik, printed at Vienna, 1774.

* Eſſai ſur la Biblio.heque, p. 92.

alſo

alſo for all others, until 1707, when ſome new Ruſſian types, conſiſting of great and ſmall letters, and ſimilar to thoſe which are now employed, were caſt at Amſterdam for the printing-houſe at Moſcow *. The language in which the church-ſervice is ſtill performed, is the ſame which was ſpoken in the ninth century by the Sclavonians ſettled upon the banks of the Danube, in the countries now called Hungary and Bulgaria, from whom the Ruſſians are undoubtedly deſcended. The tranſlation of the Bible made in that century being ſtill in general uſe, has aſcertained its original, and preſerved it in its priſtine ſtate; and it is remarkable that the ſeveral dialects of Sclavonian, ſuch as Poliſh, Ruſſian, Bohemian, &c. have a greater reſemblance to this mother-tongue than to each other †.

The Cyrilian alphabet employed by the Ruſſian church is compoſed of 39 characters, ſome of which contained, according to our mode of ſpelling, three or even four conſonants; but, as new modified in 1707, for common uſe, is reduced to 30 ‡ letters.

* See a Specimen of the Ruſſian characters, in vol. II. book III. chap. V.

† Schloetzer Prob. Ruſ. An. p. 189.

‡ Ruſſian Dictionary, 1778. In Charpentiere's Grammar there are 32 characters.

The

The Sclavonian, in its different dialects, is known through a larger extent of country, and by a greater number of people, than perhaps any other language in the world. It is the native tongue in Bohemia, Moravia, Croatia, Carinthia, Carniola, Sclavonia, Boſnia, Servia, Albania, Dalmatia, different parts of Hungary and Bulgaria, Poland, and Ruſſia: in a word, a traveller acquainted with that language would be underſtood from the confines of Germany to the Sea of Kamtchatka.

The Ruſſian dialect of the Sclavonian, which is ſaid to be extremely rich and harmonious, has not, till very lately, undergone any degree of cultivation; having been chiefly confined to affairs of government, eccleſiaſtical writings, and to unconnected chronicles and journals.

Some authors, in conſidering the ſmall advances which the Ruſſians have made in the arts and ſciences, when compared with the progreſs of the more enlightened nations in Europe, have erroneouſly attributed this deficiency to the effects of their climate, or to an innate want of genius. With reſpect to the latter aſſertion, it ſcarcely deſerves a ſerious refutation: for all intellectual improvement muſt ariſe from culture; and the greater

or leſſer degree of knowledge muſt ultimately depend upon the greater or leſſer degree of inſtruction. Beſides, this illiberal national reflection, indiſcriminately caſt upon a whole people, is ſufficiently refuted by the bare mention of ſeveral illuſtrious Ruſſians, who, amongſt many others, might be ſelected on this occaſion: Philaretes and Nicon; Sophia Alexiefna; prince Vaſſili Galitzin and Peter the Great; the learned Theophanes; the poets Lomonozof and Sumorokof; and the preſent hiſtorian prince Sherebatof.

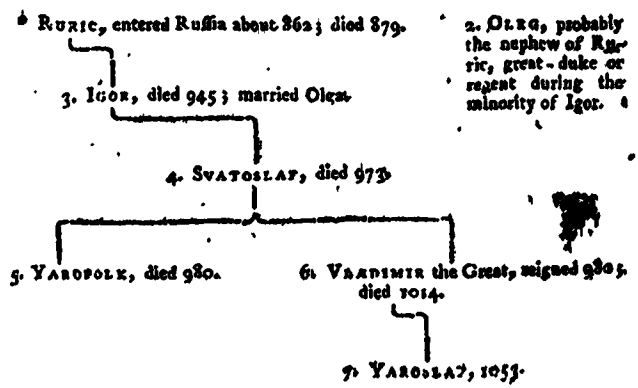
With reſpect to the firſt objection, that the genius of this nation has been fettered by the intenſe cold of their climate, we may ſubjoin the following remarks. If climate has ſuch an invincible effect upon mankind, where ſhall we draw the line of the greateſt intellectual ability? Shall we ſuppoſe a point, in which the human mind is at its greateſt perfection, and from which, in proportion as it recedes, it gradually degenerates; in the ſame manner as rays of light become fainter and fainter, as they diverge from their focus to a greater diſtance? Is the influence of climate uniform or caſual? If uniform, why is modern Greece no longer the ſeat of arts and learning? Why was Iceland once the ſole repoſitory of northern

thern literature? Why are the Swedes more enlightened than the Ruſſians? and why are not the Ruſſians of Aſtracan more civilized than thoſe of Peterſburgh and Archangel? If the effects of climate are caſual, they are then counterbalanced by other circumſtances; and it ceaſes to be a poſitive criterion of diſtinction.

To a perſon at all converſant with this ſubject of inquiry, there are many impediments ariſing from the government, religion, and particularly from the abſolute vaſſalage of the peaſants, which would tend to check the diffuſion of the arts and ſciences in this empire, without the neceſſity of having recourſe to a ſuppoſed want of genius in the natives, or to the effect of climate. But inſtead of combating theoretical reaſonings, which have no foundation in fact or experience; I ſhall haſten to trace the riſe and progreſs of Ruſſian literature, and take a curſory view of its preſent ſtate.

While ſome authors deny the ſmalleſt portion of literature to the Ruſſians, and even hold them to be incapable of any conſiderable progreſs in ſcience; others, on the contrary, aſſert, that they began to be enlightened even at ſo early a period as during the reigns of

Oleg and Igor *. But their arguments in favour of this hypotheſis, prove little more than that the art of writing was probably not abſolutely unknown to the Ruſſians in thoſe times; that they concluded treaties of alliance and commerce; ſealed commiſſions and paſſports; that they were not entirely without laws; and that they had compoſed, or could repeat, a few ancient ſongs, which celebrated the military exploits of their princes and leaders. But undoubtedly the whole nation was plunged in the groſſeſt ignorance, and in a ſituation not ſuperior to that of the moſt wandering hordes who now inhabit Independent Tartary. It is ſaid of Svatoſlaf, the ſon of Igor †, "Upon his march he carried with him "no baggage-waggon, no kitchen furniture;


* Ruric, entered Ruſſia about 862; died 879.
2. Oleg, probably the nephew of Ruric, great-duke or regent during the minority of Igor.
3. Igor, died 945; married Olga.
4. Svatoslaf, died 973.
5. Yaropolk, died 980.
6. Vladimir the Great, reigned 980; died 1014.
7. Yaroslaf, 1053.

† Journ. St. Pet. for 1781. Part I. p. 151.

"his

" his food was the fleſh of horſes and other " animals, juſt warmed over the fire; he had " no tent; his houſings ſerved him for a bed, " and his ſaddle for a pillow; and the whole " army followed his example." A deſcription which characterizes the chief of an unlettered Scythian tribe, and not the ſovereign of a people in whom the ſmalleſt traces of the arts were to be found. And although perhaps the knowledge of the Sclavonian alphabet might have been brought into Ruſſia by a few Chriſtians, who were drawn to the court by Olga, the wife of Igor; yet the firſt introduction of literature muſt be aſcribed to Vlodimir the Great, upon his converſion to Chriſtianity in 988: that ſovereign even inſtituted ſchools, and paſſed a decree * to regulate the mode of inſtructing youth in his dominions. His ſon Yaroſlaf, who aſcended the throne in 1018, invited many learned prieſts from Conſtantinople; cauſed various Greek books to be tranſlated into the Ruſſian tongue; hymns, and other poetical verſions of the pſalms to be ſung in the churches: he eſtabliſhed a ſemi-

* This curious decree ſtill exiſts in the Ruſſian tongue, and is tranſlated into French by Bachmeiſter, in his Eſſai ſur la Bib. &c. p. 9.

nary at Novogorod for 300 ſtudents; and gave to that republic the firſt code of written laws. This dawn of letters, which ſhone upon Ruſſia at ſo early a period, was, however, obſcured by the ſubſequent calamities; and was ſucceeded by a long darkneſs of three centuries, during which time the nation was ſubject to the Tartar yoke. The Chriſtian religion, however, tended in this, as well as in moſt other countries of Europe, to preſerve ſome ſmall remains of literature in the ſchools and ſeminaries of the ſeveral monaſteries. Thus each of theſe manſions of bigotry and ſuperſtition then fortunately became an aſylum for the preſervation, though not for the diffuſion of knowledge; and in this period of barbariſm and ignorance, many monks were diſtinguiſhed for their erudition.

Upon the final expulſion of the Tartars by Ivan Vaſſilievitch I. in the middle of the 15th century, Ruſſia gradually emerged from this ſtate of almoſt total darkneſs; and continued improving in civilization and culture, under the patronage of the ſucceeding ſovereigns, particularly Ivan II. Boris Godunof, the two firſt tzars of the line of Romanof, and the princeſs Sophia, who held the reins of government in the minority of Peter I. But it

was not till the æra of that great monarch, that letters, which, a few inſtances excepted, had hitherto been confined to the regular clergy, began to be cultivated by the laity; a ſure ſign that the nation was advancing to a more general ſtate of improvement.

A review of the lives and works of a few of the moſt eminent writers, who have contributed to poliſh and refine the language, and to diffuſe a taſte for ſcience among their countrymen, will aſſiſt in tracing the progreſs of literature, and aſcertaining its preſent ſtate *.

In this inquiry I ſhall confine myſelf principally to two heads: I. Hiſtory; and II. Poetry.

I. HISTORY.

This empire can boaſt the earlieſt hiſtorian of the North; for, at a period when Poland,

* Perhaps ſome little apology would have been thought neceſſary for the author's preſuming to touch upon the literature of a nation, with whoſe language he profeſſes himſelf unacquainted; if the ſubject had not been totally unknown to the Engliſh reader, and ſeemed in a great degree connected with the plan of this work; if the author had not carefully peruſed ſeveral eſteemed tranſlations of the original compoſitions; and had not always given his criticiſms on the authority of thoſe perſons who are either natives or perfect maſters of the Ruſſian tongue.

Sweden, and Denmark were unlettered; when even the annaliſts of Iceland were yet mute; a monk of the convent of Petcherſki at Kiof was compiling the hiſtory of Ruſſia.

This annaliſt, whoſe ſecular name is not known, was born in 1056, at Bielozero; and in the nineteenth year of his age he aſſumed the monaſtic habit in the above-mentioned convent, and took the name of Neſtor *. At Kiof he made a conſiderable proficiency in the Greek language: but ſeems to have formed his ſtyle and manner rather from the Byzantine hiſtorians, Cedrenus, Zonaras, and Syncellus, than from the ancient claſſics. The time of Neſtor's death is not aſcertained; but he is ſuppoſed to have lived to an advanced age, and to have died about the year 1115.

His great work is his Chronicle, to which he has prefixed an introduction; which, after a ſhort ſketch of the early ſtate of the world, taken from the Byzantine writers, contains a geographical deſcription of Ruſſia and the adjacent regions; an account of the Sclavonian

* For the account of Neſtor, ſee principally Muller, S. R. G. V. p. 6; and Schloetzer's Probe Ruſſiſch[illegible]nalen; which accurate and intereſting work I have chiefly followed, as the great ſource of information relative to the early annaliſts of Ruſſia.

nations,

nations, their manners, their emigrations from the banks of the Danube, their diſperſion, and ſettlement in the ſeveral countries, wherein their deſcendants are now eſtabliſhed. He then enters upon a chronological ſeries of the Ruſſian annals, from the year 858 to about 1113. His ſtyle is ſimple and unadorned, ſuch as ſuits a mere recorder of facts; but his chronological exactneſs, though it renders his narrative dry and tedious, contributes to aſcertain the æra and authenticity of the events which he relates *.

It

* A competent judge thus expreſſes himſelf with regard to this performance:

"Neſtor's chronicle is *unique* in its kind. For all the "other Sclavonian people, ſuch as the Poles, Bohemians, "Illyrians, &c. cannot produce any writer who can in the "ſmalleſt degree contend with the Ruſſian annaliſt in an"tiquity, minuteneſs, accuracy, and truth. He was ſo "highly eſteemed in Ruſſia, and the ſubſequent writers "were ſo convinced of his fidelity, that, in ſpeaking of the "ſame times, they adopt his very words, or make only the "ſmalleſt alterations.

"I will not prejudice the readers in their judgment con"cerning the authenticity of this annaliſt; and I am con"vinced, that whoever peruſes his work, will at once do "him the juſtice which he deſerves. I allude to thoſe "readers only who do not acknowledge any other hiſtories "than thoſe which are derived from the moſt eſteemed "ſources; and who know how to diſtinguiſh with critical

It is remarkable, that an author of ſuch importance, whoſe name frequently occurs in the early Ruſſian books, ſhould have remained in obſcurity above 600 years; and been ſcarcely known to his modern countrymen, the origin and actions of whoſe anceſtors he records with ſuch circumſtantial exactneſs. A copy of his chronicle was given, in 1668, by prince Radzivil to the library of Konigſburgh, where it lay unnoticed until Peter the Great, in his paſſage through that town, ordered a tranſcript of it to be ſent to Peterſburgh. But it

" exactneſs the purity of thoſe ſources. But I do not ad-
" dreſs myſelf to thoſe who have not hitherto been ac-
" quainted with any other writers on the early times of
" the Ruſſian hiſtory than Herberſtein and Petreius; who
" place the introduction of the art of writing into Ruſſia
" ſo late as the 13th century; who hold the ſucceſſion of
" Ruſſian ſovereigns to be unknown, at leaſt uncertain,
" until the time of Ivan Vaſſilievitch; who conſider this
" long period as totally obſcure, in which no chronicle
" affords a clue to the diſcerning hiſtorian; who draw
" their whole knowledge of Ruſſian hiſtory from Strah-
" lenberg, Voltaire, La Combe, and from the ſtill more
" wretched compilers of the article Ruſſia in the Univerſal
" Hiſtory: Theſe readers will not indeed be eaſily induced
" to eſteem, as authentic, the relations of a monk, whoſe
" writings ſhow the inaccuracy of the above-mentioned
" authors, and confute at once their whole account of
" Ruſſia during the middle ages." Schloetzer, Ruſſ. Ann. p. 32.

ſtill

ſtill was not known as the performance of Neſtor: for when Muller, in 1732, publiſhed the firſt part of a German tranſlation *, he mentioned it as the work of the abbot Theodoſius of Kiof; an error which aroſe from the following circumſtance: the ingenious editor, not being at that time ſufficiently acquainted with the Sclavonian tongue, employed an interpreter, who, by miſtaking a letter in the title, ſuppoſed it to have been written by a perſon whoſe name was Theodoſius. This ridiculous blunder was ſoon circulated, and copied by many foreign writers; even long after it had been candidly acknowledged and corrected by Muller.

Neſtor was ſucceſſively followed by three annaliſts; the firſt was Sylveſter, abbot of the convent of St. Michael at Kiof, and biſhop of Periſlaf, who died in 1123: he commences his chronicle from 1115, only two years poſterior to that of Neſtor, and continues it to 1123; from which period a monk, whoſe name has not been delivered down to poſte-

* S. R. G. I. p. 1, &c. The real title to this manuſcript was, by the "Monk of the Theodoſian Convent of "Petcherſki;" which the interpreter, by miſtaking one letter, explained, The Monk Theodoſius, of the Convent, &c. See Schloetzer, p. 16.

rity,

rity, carries the hiſtory to 1157; and another, equally unknown, to 1024. With reſpect to theſe performances, Mr. Muller informs us, "the labours of Neſtor and his three continuators have produced a connected ſeries of the Ruſſian hiſtory ſo complete, that no nation can boaſt a ſimilar treaſure for ſo long and unbroken a period *." We may add likewiſe from the ſame authority, that theſe annals record much fewer prodigies and monkiſh legends, than others which have iſſued from the cloiſter in times ſo unenlightened.

From this period, which terminates in 1203, there is no regular continuation of the Ruſſian hiſtory, but many ſeparate and detached annaliſts: for as the empire was broken into independent principalities, each writer has detailed the events of the particular diſtrict in which he flouriſhed. The next general annaliſt who preſents himſelf to our notice is Cyprian, metropolitan of Ruſſia in the reign of Demetrius Donſki, who began in the 14th century the *Book of Degrees*; ſo called becauſe it arranges the hiſtory of the empire, according to the order of *deſcent*: each degree con-

* S. R. G. V. p. 6.

tains

tains the reign of thoſe ſovereigns who followed each other in an uninterrupted line; and a new one commences when the throne paſſed to a collateral branch. This work was continued by the metropolitan Makari, who flouriſhed under Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. and afterwards by unknown compilers, to the times ſomewhat poſterior to the reign of Feodor Ivanovitch. Theſe writings, unlike thoſe of Neſtor and his continuators, contain many idle traditions and abſurd legends; but the events, which they at the ſame time record, naturally render them the object of the hiſtorian's notice; and Mr. Muller has thought them of ſufficient conſequence to become their editor.

The chronicle of Nicon, in which he collected a complete ſeries of Ruſſian annaliſts, from Neſtor to the reign of Alexèy Michaelovitch, and the extraordinary exertions which he made to diffuſe knowledge among his countrymen, have been already related.

The reign of Alexèy was extremely fertile in what were called hiſtorical productions; but which in reality are rather dry materials than deſerving ſuch an honourable appellation. It would be tedious to enumerate the various chronicles, journals of the court, books of genealogy,

genealogy, public records, ſtate-papers, and other ſimilar ſources of information, both of his and ſucceeding times; which the libraries contain in ſuch abundance as to aſtoniſh a ſtranger, who by falſe repreſentations may have been miſled to conceive that the Ruſſians are deficient in ſuch original documents.

Among the perſons who, poſterior to Nicon, have moſtly contributed to promote ſcience by their example and protection; to whom Ruſſia is chiefly indebted for the introduction of polite literature; and who may be claſſed among the hiſtorians, muſt not be omitted Theophanes Prokopovitch, metropolitan archbiſhop of Novogorod. This learned prelate, who is here mentioned as the author of a Life of Peter the Great, was the ſon of a burgher of Kiof: he was born in that city on the 9th of June 1681, and was baptized by the name of Eliſha. Under his uncle Theophanes, rector of the ſeminary in the Bratſkoi Convent at Kiof, he commenced his ſtudies; and was well grounded in the rudiments of the Greek, Latin, and Hebrew tongues. Though his uncle died in 1692, he completed his education in that ſeminary; and in 1698, in the eighteenth year of his age, he travelled into Italy. He reſided three years at Rome; where, beſide

beſide a competent knowledge of the Italian, he acquired a taſte for the fine arts, and improved himſelf in philoſophy and divinity.

Upon his return to Kioſ, he read lectures on the Latin and Sclavonian art of poetry in the ſame ſeminary in which he had been educated; and, having aſſumed the monaſtic habit, he changed his name to Theophanes. Before he had attained the 25th year of his age, he was appointed præfect, the ſecond office in the ſeminary, and profeſſor of philoſophy. In 1706 he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by ſpeaking a Latin oration before Peter the Great; and ſtill more by a ſermon, which, in 1709, he preached before the ſame monarch after the battle of Pultava. Having once attracted the notice, he ſoon acquired the protection, of Peter, who was ſo captivated with his great talents, ſuperior learning, and polite addreſs, as to ſelect him for a companion in the enſuing campaign againſt the Turks:—a ſure prelude to his future advancement. In 1711 Theophanes was nominated abbot of the monaſtery of Bratſkoi, rector of the ſeminary, and profeſſor of divinity. His cenſures againſt the ignorance and indolence of the Ruſſian clergy, and his endeavours to promote a taſte for polite literature among his brethren, rendered him

him a fit inſtrument in the hands of Peter for the reformation of the church, and the final abolition of the patriarchal dignity. He was placed at the head of the ſynod, of which eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment he himſelf drew the plan; was created in 1718 biſhop of Pleſcof; and in 1720 archbiſhop of the ſame dioceſe: ſoon after the acceſſion of Catharine he was conſecrated archbiſhop of Novogorod, and metropolitan of all Ruſſia; and died in 1736.

Beſide various ſermons and theological diſquiſitions, he wrote a treatiſe on rhetoric, and on the rules for Latin and Sclavonian poetry; he compoſed verſes in the Latin language; and was author of a work, for which he is chiefly mentioned in this place, the Life of Peter the Great, which terminates with the battle of Pultava. In this performance the prelate has, notwithſtanding his natural partiality to his benefactor, avoided thoſe ſcurrilous abuſes of the contrary party, which frequently diſgrace the beſt hiſtories; and has been particularly candid in his account of Sophia. Peter, from a well-grounded experience, had formed ſuch a good opinion of the talents of Theophanes, as to employ him in compoſing the decrees which concerned theological

logical queſtions, and even many which related to civil affairs.

Theophanes may be ſaid, not only to have cultivated the ſciences, and to have promoted them during his life, but likewiſe to have left a legacy to his countrymen, for their further progreſs after his deceaſe, by maintaining in his epiſcopal palace ſixty boys, whoſe education he ſuperintended: under his auſpices they were inſtructed in foreign languages, and in various branches of polite knowledge, which had been hitherto cenſured by many as profane acquiſitions; thus tranſmitting the rays of learning to illuminate future ages and a diſtant poſterity *.

Hitherto, though Ruſſia abounded in chronicles and annals relative to detached periods, yet excepting a dry detail of facts compiled

* For the hiſtory of Theophanes I have followed implicitly Muller, whoſe fidelity and accuracy always appear to me unqueſtionable. See S. R. G. V. p. 564. Monſ. Le Clerc differs from Mr. Muller in relating the earlieſt part of this prelate's life. He alſo informs us, that Theophanes perſuaded Peter to introduce the proteſtant religion into Ruſſia; and that the emperor was inclined to follow his advice, but was prevented by his death.

This important anecdote I could not, however, venture to adopt, though I cannot controvert it, as the ingenious author has not cited his authority. See Le Clerc's Hiſt. Anc. de Ruſſie, p. 292; and Hiſt. Mod. p. 65, 66.

for the uſe of Alexèy Michaelovitch, it poſſeſſed no regular and connected hiſtory. The firſt attempt towards ſuch a work was undertaken by prince Khilkof. This nobleman *, deſcended from a very ancient family, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf as embaſſador to ſeveral foreign courts, before he was ſent in 1700 to Stockholm in that capacity. He accompanied Charles XII. in his deſcent upon the Iſle of Zealand; and upon the enſuing truce of Travendahl, between Sweden and Denmark, returned to Stockholm on the 17th of September, at the eve of the rupture which broke out between the Swediſh and Ruſſian monarchs. His character of embaſſador, deemed ſacred by the law of nations, could not protect him from the reſentment of Charles XII.; and, on the 20th of the ſame month, he was arreſted and impriſoned.

As an amuſement during his captivity, which was long, and for ſome time extremely rigorous; and at the requeſt of his fellow-priſoner prince Trubetſkoi, he began an abridgement of the Ruſſian hiſtory, from its earlieſt period to his own time; which he completed before he was reſtored to liberty. After a confine-

* See Bach. Ruſſ. Bib. for 1777, p. 78—87.

ment

ment of eighteen years, he expired in his priſon of Weſteros, in the moment when he was upon the point of being releaſed. His work, called the Kernel of the Ruſſian Hiſtory, is a mere abridgement, and was publiſhed in 1770 by Mr. Muller. It forms only one volume in octavo, and contains ſeven books; the firſt commences with the creation of the world, and ends with the foundation of the Ruſſian empire under Ruric; the remaining ſix carry down the hiſtory from that period to the year 1713. During ſome part of his confinement, he was permitted to receive from Moſcow books, extracts from chronicles, and a few ſtate-papers; but as he could not obtain the neceſſary documents ſo well as if he had been upon the ſpot, his performance unavoidably contains occaſional errors, many of which the judicious editor has pointed out and corrected.

About the time of Khilkof's death, Vaſſili Tatiſchef, who had more opportunities of obtaining information, commenced a ſimilar work upon a much larger ſcale. In 1720, he began to collect materials for a complete hiſtory of Ruſſia; and continued his reſearches without intermiſſion for the ſpace of 30 years. The indefatigable compiler finiſhed his ac-

count to the reign of Feodor Ivanovitch; and was bringing it down to this century, when death put a period to his labours. Part of this great work was conſumed in a fire; and the remainder was publiſhed after the author's death by Mr. Muller. It conſiſts of three large volumes in quarto. The firſt contains ſeveral curious diſſertations relative to the antiquity of the Sclavonian nation; the ſecond and third compriſe the hiſtory of the Ruſſian empire, from its earlieſt origin to the year 1237. It can hardly be called a regular hiſtory, but is rather a connected ſeries of chronicles, whoſe antiquated Sclavonian dialects are only changed into the Ruſſian idiom; and the author is juſtly cenſured for not regularly citing the various annaliſts as he abridges or new models them, and for not aſſigning the reaſons which induced him to prefer the writers whoſe relations he has adopted, to thoſe which he has rejected *.

Since Tatiſchef, ſeveral writers † have publiſhed

* Bach. Ruſſ. Bib. for 1774, p. 43; alſo for 1785, p. 216. L'Eveſque, Vol. I. p. xxxi.

† Particularly Novikof, in his ancient Ruſſian Library, in ten volumes, a work thus characteriſed by L'Eveſque: "Recueil de pieces originales et authentiques, tirées des "cabinets

liſhed collections of ſtate-papers and other documents; but the honour of compoſing a complete hiſtory of this country is probably reſerved for prince Sherebatof; who, if we except Mr. Muller, has contributed more than any other perſon towards illuſtrating the Ruſſian annals.

This learned nobleman is editor of the following works: A journal of Peter the Great in 2 vols. quarto, which he found in the archives, and publiſhed by order of the empreſs. It conſiſts of eight books, five of which were corrected by Peter himſelf. The firſt volume begins with the inſurrection of the Strelitzes in 1698, and finiſhes with the year 1714; the ſecond concludes with the peace of Nyſtadt in 1721. The learned editor has added ſeveral remarks, and ſome important pieces from the Ruſſian archives.—The Ruſſian Hiſtory, by an Ancient Annaliſt, from the beginning of the reign of Vladimir Mo-

" cabinets et des archives: on y trouve des morceaux très " importantes." Vol. I. xxiv. The Academy of Sciences has alſo publiſhed an Hiſtorical Journal every month, from 1755 to 1765. It conſiſts of 20 volumes, octavo, and contains " un grand nombre de morceaux hiſtoriques très " intereſſans, dont la plupart ont été compoſés par le ſavant " Muller." Ib.

nomaca, in 1114, to 1472, in which the author particularly dwells upon the civil feuds in the city of Novogorod, and its ſubjection to Ivan Vaſſilievitch I.—The Life of Peter the Great, in the Ruſſian language, firſt publiſhed at Venice; which the prince reprinted in 1774, and, according to his uſual cuſtom, enriched with many hiſtorical obſervations.—His own works are, an Account of the Ruſſian Impoſtors: amongſt theſe is the Life of Demetrius, chiefly drawn from the ſame ſources as thoſe which Mr. Muller conſulted in his relation of the ſame period.—But this noble author's great work is the Hiſtory of Ruſſia, from the earlieſt times. He has already publiſhed three volumes in quarto, which finiſh with the reign of Demetrius Donſki, who died in 1389. The fourth volume was in the preſs in the year 1778; but I am not certain whether it has yet made its appearance. I have read with great pleaſure the German tranſlation of this performance, which appears to me a moſt valuable addition to the hiſtory of the North. The author has had acceſs to the imperial archives: he draws his information from the moſt ancient and unqueſtionable ſources; is particularly exact in quoting his authorities; and ranges the events

events in chronological ſeries with great perſpicuity. A writer, who, having conſulted many of the ſame chronicles which are cited by this hiſtorian, and who having given to the public the moſt complete hiſtory of Ruſſia yet extant, is no incompetent judge of Sherebatof's merit, thus ſpeaks of this work: "L'Auteur cite toujours ſes autorités. J'ai "vérifié un grand nombre de ſes citations, et "j'ai reconnu par tout ſon exactitude. Si le "premier caractere d'un hiſtorien eſt l'amour "de la vérité, ce prince mérite des grands "éloges *."

Although this diſquiſition is confined to the native writers; yet I cannot avoid curſorily mentioning Voltaire's Life of Peter the Great, as it is the work from which moſt foreign nations have formed their ideas of Ruſſia; which many French and Engliſh authors have ſervilely copied, until it is conſidered as a ſtandard book, to which we may refer as to the moſt unqueſtionable authority; and particularly as the author informs us in

* "The author always cites his authorities. I have "verified a great number of his references, and have al-"ways diſcovered his accuracy. If the firſt character of "an hiſtorian is the love of truth, the prince deſerves the "greateſt praiſe." L'Eveſque.

the Preface: " *La cour de Peterſbourg, &c.* " *a fait parvenir à l'hiſtorien chargé de cet* " *ouvrage tous les documens autentiques. Il n'a* " *écrit que ſur des preuves inconteſtables.*"

But the well-informed Ruſſians, although this work idolizes their hero Peter I. do not ſcruple to confeſs that it is a very inaccurate performance; a panegyric rather than a hiſtory, in which many facts are diſguiſed or omitted; where every defect in the principal character is ſoftened, and every virtue exaggerated. The truth is, that the elegant author wrote this Life by deſire of the empreſs Elizabeth, by whoſe order he received great part of the materials. Hence it may eaſily be conjectured, that nothing would be communicated which could reflect the ſmalleſt diſcredit on Peter or Catharine I.; and that the author was unwilling to inſert any circumſtance which might be diſpleaſing to Elizabeth. His genius was fettered by theſe reſtraints; the picture, accordingly, which he has drawn of Peter I. is almoſt as devoid of animation as of reſemblance, and this ſketch is the leaſt entertaining, as well as the moſt inaccurate, of all his hiſtorical pieces.

But frequently alſo in regard to thoſe events which did not interfere with Elizabeth's prejudices,

judices, he certainly either did not examine, or did not follow, ſome of the beſt and moſt authentic materials which had been ſent from Peterſburgh *. From theſe circumſtances we may fairly aſſent to the truth of the cenſure paſſed by the lively writer upon his own per-

* Buſching has publiſhed, in the third volume of his Hiſtorical Magazine, "Memoire abregé ſur la vie du Tſare-vitch Alexèi Petrovitch." This memoir, ſays the editor, was ſent to Voltaire before he began to write his Hiſtory of Ruſſia: it will ſerve as a proof how little that writer employed the authentic papers tranſmitted to him. Vol. III. p. 194. Mr. Muller alſo charges Voltaire with not paying ſufficient attention to the papers which he communicated from the moſt undoubted authorities. "Tout le "monde eſt d'accord, &c. Buſ. XVI. p. 352, que l'Hiſ-"toire de Pierre le Grand de Voltaire n'a point rempli "l'atteinte qu'on en avait avant qu'elle parut au jour. "On s'en apperçut même avant la publication par les "échantillons, que l'auteur envoyoit à St. Peterſbourg en "Mſſcript. Je fus prié de faire là deſſus des remarques. "Je le fis: mais M. Voltaire n'eut pas la patience d'en "profiter; tant ſe hata-t-il à faire imprimer le I. Tome. "Après la publication je continuai mes remarques. Tout "cela fut envoyé à l'auteur. C'eſt à l'aide de ces re-"marques que M. Voltaire dans la Preface du II. Tome "vient de corriger quelques legéres fautes qu'il avoit "commiſes dans le premier. Il en a excuſé d'autres. Il "a payé de duretés. Il a eu garde ſur tout de ne point "toucher à des faits qui le feroient rougir. Voila ce que "c'eſt qu'un auteur qui ne veut avoir tort." See B. H. M. XVI. p. 352.

formance, when he ſaid, " *Je ferai graver* " *ſur ma tombe, cy git qui a voulu écrire l'hiſ-* " *toire de Pierre le Grand* *," .

II. POETRY.

With reſpect to the Ruſſian poetry previous to this century, the only ſpecimens were a few ancient ſongs; ſome occaſional copies of verſes; and a pſalter, compoſed by the monk Simeon Polotſki, and printed at Moſcow in 1680. To uſe the expreſſions of the epic writer Kheraſkof, " the Muſes waited " till the reign of Peter the Great, in order " to make their appearance in Ruſſia: be- " fore his time there were indeed a few poets, " but their compoſitions were more rhymes " than verſes; and even during his reign the " art was ſtill in its infancy. At length came " Lomónozof †," &c. Theophanes had indeed read lectures upon the rules for Sclavonian or Ruſſian verſes; prince Kantemir, Ilinſki, Trediatoſſki, and a few others, had compoſed; but there were certainly no poets

* Cited by L'Eveſque, Vol. I. p. xxx. " Here lies " the perſon who *would* have written the Hiſtory of Peter " the Great."

† Preface to Kheraſkof's Poem on the Battle of Tcheſme, quoted in Bach. Ruſſ. Bib. for 1774, p. 201.

of

of eminence before Lomonozof and Sumorokof. A ſketch therefore of the lives and writings of theſe two authors, a ſhort account of the Ruſſian ſtage, and a few remarks on the compoſitions of Kheraſkof, will convey to the reader ſome idea of the riſe, progreſs, and preſent ſtate, of poetry in this empire.

Lomonozof*, the great refiner of his native tongue, was the ſon of a perſon who trafficked in fiſh at Kolmogori: he was born in 1711, and was fortunately taught to read; a rare inſtance for a perſon of ſo low a ſtation in Ruſſia. His natural genius for poetry was firſt kindled by the peruſal of the Song of Solomon, done into verſe by Polotſki; whoſe rude compoſitions, perhaps ſcarcely ſuperior to our verſion of the Pſalms by Sternhold and Hopkins, inſpired him with ſuch an irreſiſtible paſſion for the muſes, that he fled from his father, who would have compelled him to marry, and took refuge in a monaſtery at Moſcow; where he had an opportunity of indulging his taſte for letters, and of ſtudying the Greek and Latin languages. In this ſeminary he made ſo conſiderable a progreſs in polite literature, as to

* Le Clerc. Hiſt. Mod. p. 70.

be

be noticed and employed by the Imperial Academy of Sciences. In 1736 he was ſent, at the expence of that ſociety, to the univerſity of Marburgh * in Heſſe Caſſel; where he became a ſcholar of the celebrated Chriſtian Wolf, under whom he ſtudied univerſal grammar, rhetoric, and philoſophy. He continued at Marburgh four years, during which time he applied himſelf with indefatigable diligence to chymiſtry, which he afterwards purſued with ſtill greater ſucceſs, under the famous Henckel, at Freyberg in Saxony. In 1741 he returned into Ruſſia; was choſen in 1742 adjunct to the Imperial Academy; and in the enſuing year member of that ſociety, and profeſſor of chymiſtry. In 1760 he was appointed inſpector of the ſeminary, then annexed to the Academy; in 1764 he was gratified by the preſent empreſs with the title of counſellor of ſtate; and died on the 4th of April that year, in the 54th year of his age.

Lomonozof excelled in various kinds of compoſitions; but his chief merit, by which

* Le Clerc ſays Magdebourg, which is no univerſity: I preſume it is a falſe print, for Marburgh, where Wolf was profeſſor of mathematics and philoſophy, from the year 1723 to 1741.

he

he bears the firſt rank among the Ruſſian writers, is derived from his poetical compoſitions, the fineſt of which are his odes. The firſt ode was written in 1739, while he ſtudied in Germany, upon the taking of Kotſchin, a fortreſs of Crim Tartary, by marſhal Munic. The odes of Lomonozof are greatly admired for originality of invention, ſublimity of ſentiment, and energy of language, and compenſate for the turgid ſtyle which, in ſome inſtances, has been imputed to them, by that ſpirit and fire, which are the principal characteriſtics in this ſpecies of compoſition. Pindar was his great model; and if we may give credit to a perſon * well verſed in the Ruſſian tongue, he has ſucceeded in this daring attempt to imitate the Theban bard, without incurring the cenſure of Horace †. In this, as well as ſeveral other ſpecies of compoſition, he enriched his native language with various kinds of metre; and ſeems to have merited the appellation beſtowed upon him, of the Father of Ruſſian Poetry.

A brief recapitulation of the principal works

* L'Eveſque, who ſays of him, "Il eſt peût-être le ſeul "émule de Pindare."

† "Pindarum quiſquis ſtudet æmulari," &c. L'Ode de Lomonoſof fit connoitre aux Ruſſes les veritables regles de la harmonie. Le Clerc.

of

of Lomonozof, which were printed in three volumes octavo, will ſerve to ſhow the verſatility of his genius, and his extenſive knowledge in various branches of literature.

The firſt volume, beſide a preface on the advantages derived to the Ruſſian tongue from the eccleſiaſtical writings, contains ten ſacred and nineteen panegyric odes, and ſeveral occaſional pieces of poetry.

The ſecond compriſes an Eſſay, in proſe, on the rules for Ruſſian Poetry; tranſlation of a German Ode; Idylls; Tamira and Selim, a tragedy; Demophoon, a tragedy; Poetical Epiſtle on the Utility of Glaſs; two cantos of an epic Poem, intitled Peter the Great; a congratulatory copy of verſes; an Ode; tranſlation of Baptiſt Rouſſeau's ode, *Sur le Bonheur*; Heads of a Courſe of Lectures on Natural Philoſophy; certain paſſages tranſlated in verſe and proſe, according to the originals, from Cicero, Eraſmus, Lucian, Ælian, Ammianus Marcellinus, Quintus Curtius, Homer, Virgil, Martial, Ovid, Horace, and Seneca, which Ruſſian tranſlations were brought as examples in his Lectures upon Rhetoric; laſtly, deſcription of the Comet which appeared in 1744.

The third volume conſiſts chiefly of ſpeeches and treatiſes read before the academy; panegyric on the empreſs Elizabeth; on Peter the Great; treatiſe on the advantages of chymiſtry; on the phænomena of the air, occaſioned by the electrical fire, with a Latin tranſlation of the ſame; on the origin of light, as a new theory of colours; methods to determine with preciſion the courſe of a veſſel; on the origin of metals by the means of earthquakes; Latin diſſertation on ſolidity and fluidity; on the Tranſit of Venus in 1761, with a German tranſlation *.

* Mr. Damaſkin, who publiſhed this complete edition of Lomonozof's works, received from the empreſs a preſent of £. 100. See Ruſſ. Bib. for 1780, p. 338.

Beſide

Beſide theſe various ſubjects, Lomonozof made no inconſiderable figure in hiſtory, having publiſhed two ſmall works relative to that of his own country. The firſt, ſtyled Annals of the Ruſſian Sovereigns, is a ſhort chronology of the Ruſſian monarchs; and the ſecond is the Ancient Hiſtory of Ruſſia, from the origin of that nation to the death of the great-duke Yaroſlaf I. in 1054; a performance of great merit, as it illuſtrates the moſt difficult and obſcure period in the annals of this country.

Lomonozof was alſo an admirer of the arts: had made ſome proficiency in painting, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by copying in moſaic. The portraits of the regent Anne and her ſon the unfortunate Peter the Third, done by Lomonozof in moſaic, are ſtill preſerved in the gallery of pictures at Oranienbaum.

Alexander Sumorokof, who is juſtly denominated the founder of the Ruſſian theatre, was the perſon who, after Lomonozof, principally contributed to refine the poetry of his country. But before I enter upon a detail of his life and writings, I ſhall premiſe a ſhort account of the Ruſſian ſtage; as well becauſe a view of the ſtate in which Sumorokof found

the

the national theatre *, will diſplay his powers in dramatic compoſition; as becauſe the hiſtory of the ſtage in any country forms no inconſiderable part of the true hiſtory of its literature.

Before the æra of Peter the Great, almoſt the only † dramatic repreſentations in Ruſſia were exhibited in the monaſteries of Kiof and Moſcow; where the ſtudents performed occaſionally an *Actus Oratorius*, or a ſcriptural hiſtory.

The learned Demetrius Tooptalo ‡, metropolitan archbiſhop of Roſtof, was highly diſtinguiſhed among the literati for compoſing, in the prevailing taſte of thoſe times,

* It does not enter into my plan to trace the introduction and progreſs of the German, Italian, and French players in Ruſſia. I ſhall only obſerve, that, in the reign of Peter the Great, the firſt ſet of German actors played at Peterſburgh; that ſome Italian performers firſt made their appearance in 1730; and the French comedians in 1742. For further information on this ſubject, the reader is referred to Staehlin's Geſ. des Theatres in Ruſsland, in Haygold, or Schloetzer's Beylage, Vol. I. p. 400.

† We may except the repreſentations at court during the minority of Peter the Great, when ſome of Moliere's plays, tranſlated into the Ruſſian tongue, were acted in the Ikonoſpatſkoi convent; among other perſons of diſtinction, the princeſs Sophia performed a part.

‡ He died in 1709.

the following ſcriptural hiſtories in verſe: The Sinner, an allegory.—Eſther and Ahaſuerus.—The Birth of Chriſt.—And the Reſurrection of Chriſt. At the commencement of this century, theſe pieces became the faſhionable repreſentations; and were not only performed in convents, but were acted at court, even ſo late as the beginning of Elizabeth's reign.

The ſtudents of ſurgery in the hoſpital at Moſcow ſeem to have given the firſt public performance exhibited by any of the laity, in the great hall; where they raiſed a ſtage, and uſed ſcreens for the ſcenery. Mr. Staehlin *, who was preſent at one of theſe plays, the ſubject of which was Tamerlane, informs us, that nothing could be more groteſque and ridiculous; and relates an inſtance of moſt profane ribaldry introduced into one of the ſcriptural pieces, too groſs to be mentioned. The ſame ingenious author remembers to have ſeen at Peterſburgh the empreſs's grooms act in a ſtill more wretched manner, either in the hay-loft of the imperial ſtables, or in an unfurniſhed houſe. Actors of this ſort uſed alſo

* See Geſchichte des Theatres in Ruſsland, from which ingenious treatiſe I have principally taken this account of the Ruſſian ſtage.

to

to perform every year for the amuſement of the common people: they had no regular theatre, but were accuſtomed to play in different parts of the city. At duſk, a paper lantern was hung from the window; and two huntſmen's horns were blown, in order to announce a comedy for that evening. The entrance money was from ½ to 2*d.*; and the ſpectators uſually remained two hours to ſee and hear every ſpecies of nonſenſe and ribaldry. Such was the ſtate of the Ruſſian ſtage when Sumorokof brought out his firſt tragedy of Koref.

About the ſame time the firſt regular Ruſſian theatre was opened at Yaroſlaf, under the direction of the celebrated actor Feodor Volkof, the Garrick of Ruſſia; whoſe talents for the ſtage were as great as thoſe of Sumorokof for dramatic compoſition. This ſurpriſing genius was ſon of a tradeſman at Yaroſlaf, and was born in 1729: having diſcovered very early proofs of great abilities, he was ſent for his education to Moſcow; where he learnt the German tongue, muſic, and drawing. His father dying, and his mother marrying a ſecond huſband, who had eſtabliſhed a manufacture of ſalt-petre and ſulphur, he applied himſelf to that trade; and going upon the

buſineſs of his father-in-law to Peterſburgh about the year 1748, his natural inclination for the ſtage led him to frequent the German plays, and to form an intimate acquaintance with ſome of the actors.

Upon his return to Yaroſlaf, he conſtructed a ſtage in a large apartment at his father-in-law's houſe, painted the ſcenes himſelf, and, with the aſſiſtance of his four brothers, acted ſeveral times before a large aſſembly. Their firſt performances were the ſcriptural hiſtories written by the archbiſhop of Roſtof; theſe were ſucceeded by the tragedies of Lomonozof and Sumorokof, and ſometimes ſatirical farces of their own compoſition againſt the inhabitants of Yaroſlaf. As the ſpectators were admitted *gratis* at every repreſentation, his father-in-law objected to the expence. Accordingly Volkof conſtructed in 1750, after his own plan, a large theatre, partly by ſubſcription, and partly at his own riſk: having ſupplied it with ſcenes, which he painted himſelf, and dreſſes, which he aſſiſted in making; and having procured an additional number of actors, whom he regularly inſtructed, he and his troop performed with great applauſe before crowded audiences, who cheerfully paid for their admiſſion.

In 1752, the empreſs Elizabeth, informed of their ſucceſs, ſummoned them to Peterſburgh; where they repreſented, in the theatre of the court, the tragedies of Sumorokof. In order to form the new troop to a greater degree of perfection, the four principal actors were placed in the ſeminary of the cadets *, where they remained four years. At the concluſion of that period, a regular Ruſſian theatre was eſtabliſhed at the court; three actreſſes were admitted; Sumorokof was appointed director; and £. 1000 were allowed for the actors. Beſide this ſalary, they were permitted to perform once a week to the public; and the admiſſion-money was diſtributed among them without deduction, as the lights, muſic, and dreſſes were provided at the expence of the empreſs.

The chief performances were the tragedies and comedies of Sumorokof, and tranſlations from Moliere and other French writers. The company continued to flouriſh under the pa-

* Staehlin ſays, that Volkof was amongſt theſe; but Le Clerc aſſerts, "L'impératrice fit placer les acteurs au corps "des cadets, *Volkof excepté*. Celui-ci ſe voyant privé de "ſes compagnons, s'amuſa à faire des Marionnettes; tant "le penchant naturel a de puiſſance ſur l'homme." P. 80.

tronage

tronage of Catharine II. and the ſalaries of the actors were gradually increaſed to £. 2200 per annum. Volkof and his brother were ennobled, and received from their imperial miſtreſs eſtates in land: he performed, for the laſt time, at Moſcow, in the tragedy of Zemira, a ſhort time before his death, which happened in 1763, in the 35th year of his age. He equally excelled in tragedy and comedy; and his principal merit conſiſted in characters of madneſs. He was tolerably verſed in muſic, and was no indifferent poet.

His friend Sumorokof paid the following tribute to the memory of a perſon who had done ample juſtice to his dramatic compoſitions: "Melpomene, unite thy tears with "mine.—Lament, and tear thy locks.—My "friend is dead.—Adieu, my friend—ſorrow "penetrates and diſſolves my ſoul.—The "ſource of Hippocrene is frozen.—O Ruſſia! "you poſſeſſed a ſecond Racine! but the new "theatre is already tottering from its foundations; and all the labours of a century are "deſtroyed! Volkof is ſeparated from the "Muſes for ever.—Tragedy has loſt her buſkin and her poignard.—Melpomene, bedew "his tomb with thy tears *."

* Le Clerc, p. 81.

The prophecy, however, of Sumorokof, which his enthuſiaſm for the theatrical abilities of this great actor, or his affection for the memory of his friend, led him to utter, is far from being fulfilled. The ſtage, though it has ſuffered a conſiderable loſs by the death of Volkof, ſtill ſubſiſts and proſpers under the auſpices and protection of her preſent majeſty; and from the ſpecimens which I ſaw among the foundlings at Moſcow, and in other ſeminaries, there ſeems no reaſon to apprehend the want of a future ſupply.

To return from this digreſſion: Alexander Sumorokof was the ſon of Peter Sumorokof, a Ruſſian nobleman, and was born at Moſcow, on the 14th of November 1727 *. He received the firſt rudiments of learning in his father's houſe; where, beſide a grammatical knowledge of his native tongue, he was well grounded in the Latin language. Being removed to the ſeminary of the Cadets at St. Peterſburgh, he proſecuted his ſtudies with unwearied application; and gave very early proofs of his genius for poetry. Even on

* This account of Sumorokof is chiefly taken from "Kurze Nachricht von den Leben und der Schriften des, "Alexander Petrowitch Sumorokof," in Journ. St. Pet. for 1778.

holidays

holidays he would retire from his companions, who were engaged in play, and devote his whole time to the peruſal of the Latin and French writers; nor was it long before he himſelf attempted to compoſe.

The firſt efforts of his genius were love-ſongs, whoſe tenderneſs and beauties, till then unexpreſſed in the Ruſſian tongue, were greatly admired, and conſidered as certain prognoſtics of his future fame. Upon quitting the ſeminary, he was appointed adjutant, firſt to count Golovkin, and afterwards to count Razomoſſki; and being ſoon noticed and patroniſed by count Ivan Shuvalof, he was introduced by that Mæcenas to the empreſs Elizabeth, who took him under her protection. About the 29th year of his age, an enthuſiaſtic fondneſs he had contracted for the works of Racine, turned his genius to the drama; and he wrote the tragedy of Koref, which laid the foundation of the Ruſſian theatre. This piece was firſt acted by ſome of his former ſchool-mates, the cadets, who had previouſly exerciſed their talents in declamations, and in acting a French play. The empreſs Elizabeth, informed of this new phænomenon in the theatrical world, ordered the tragedy to be exhibited in her preſence upon

a ſmall theatre of the court, where German, Italian, and French plays had been performed. The applauſe and diſtinction which the author received on this occaſion, encouraged him to follow the bent of his genius; and he produced ſucceſſively Hamlet, Ariſtona, Sinaf and Truvor, Zemira, Dimiſa, Vitſhelaf, the Falſe Demetrius, and Miciſlaf. Nor was his muſe leſs fertile in comedies; which are, Triſſotinus; the Judge; the Diſpute between the Huſband and Wife; the Guardian; the Portion acquired by Fraud; the Envious Man; Tartuffe; the Imaginary Cuckold, the Mother who rivals her Daughter; the Goſſip; and the Three Rival Brothers. He wrote alſo the operas of Alceſtes, and Cephalus and Procris.

With reſpect to his tragedies, Racine * was

* "Elegant comme Racine; il tâcha d'imiter la conduite "de ſes plans; mais il ne pût pénétrer le ſecret de notre "inimitable poéte. Il voulut être ſage comme lui, il fut "froid, et ſa ſcene manqua du mouvement." L'Eveſque, V. p. 342.

"En voulant raprocher de Racine dans la conduite de "ſes plans, Sumorokof s'éloigna dans l'action; ſouvent "il eſt froid dans les ſcénes où Racine electriſe les cœurs "et les ames. Les vers tragiques de Sumorokof ap- "prochent de la douceur, de l'élégance, et de l'harmonie "de

was his model; and the Ruſſian biographer of Sumorokof, who ſeems a competent judge of his merit, allows, that "though in ſome "inſtances he has attained all the excellence "of the French poet, yet he has failed in "many others; but it would be uncandid to "inſiſt upon ſuch defects in a writer who "firſt introduced the drama among his coun-"trymen. The French overlook in their "Corneille ſtill greater faults." "His come-"dies," continues the ſame author, "con-"tain much humour: but I do not imagine "that our dramatic writers will adopt him "for their model; for he frequently excites "the laughter of the ſpectator at the expence "of his cooler judgement *. Nevertheleſs, "they

"de ceux de Racine, mais il s'en faut bien qu'ils en aient "l'ame." Le Clerc, p. 76.

His tragedies are written in rhyme, in the Alexandrine verſe, the ſame as the French heroic. His comedies are in proſe.

* "Weil es auch ein Lachen giebt, nach welchem der "Zuſchauer nicht wohl mit ſich ſelbſt Zufrieden iſt daſs "er gelacht hat." Literally, "Since he occaſions a "laughter, at which the ſpectator is not well ſatisfied that "he has laughed." Does the biographer mean by this paſſage, that the wit of Sumorokof was often too farcical, and degenerated too much into a low ſpecies of humour? If ſo, let the author anſwer for himſelf. In a letter to Voltaire,

" they preſent ſufficient paſſages to prove, " that he would have attained a greater de- " gree of perfection in this line, if he had " paid more attention to paint our manners, " and to follow the taſte of the beſt foreign " writers."

Beſide dramatic writings, Sumorokof attempted every ſpecies of poetry, excepting the epic. He wrote love-ſongs, idyls, fables, ſatires, anacreontics, elegies, verſions of the Pſalms, and Pindaric odes. Superior to Lomonozof * in the compoſitions of the drama, he was yet inferior to him in Pindaric writings. " Though his odes," adds his biographer, " are diſtinguiſhed by their eaſy flow

taire, he complains that his countrymen had begun to adopt that wretched ſpecies of compoſition, the ſentimental comedy, inſtead of the wit and humour of Moliere; and Voltaire agreed with him, in the following words: " Je " ſouſcris entiérement à tout ce que vous dites de Moliére " et de la comédié Larmoyante, qui à la honte de la nation " a ſuccedé au ſeul vrai genre comique porté a perfection " par l'inimitable Moliére." Bach. Ruſſ. Bib. for 1778, p. 153.

* There was an unfortunate rivalry between theſe two poets: each wiſhed to excel in the other's line; and each failed in the attempt. The account of this rivalry between Lomonozof and Sumorokof might unfortunately add another article for the author of *Les Querelles Literaires.*

" of

" of verſification, by their harmony, ſoftneſs,
" and grace; yet they are far from reaching
" that elevation and fire which characterize
" thoſe of Lomonozof. Theſe two great po-
" ets had each their peculiar talents: the one
" diſplayed in his ſtyle all the majeſty, ſtrength,
" and ſublimity of the Ruſſian tongue; and
" the other all its harmony, ſoftneſs, and ele-
" gance. The elegies of Sumorokof are full
" of tenderneſs: his idyls give a true picture
" of the paſtoral life, in all the pleaſing ſim-
" plicity of unimproved nature, without de-
" ſcending to vulgarity; and may ſerve as
" models in this ſpecies of compoſition in all
" things excepting in ſtrict morality. His
" ſatires are the beſt in the Ruſſian language,
" but are extremely unequal; and deſerve to
" have been wrought with more plan and
" regularity. In writing his fables, his pen
" ſeems to have been guided by the Muſes
" and Graces *; and I do not heſitate, if not

* This opinion ſeems to be general: " Mais tous les " applaudiſſements ſe ſont réunis en faveur de ces fables. " On ne peut leur refuſer la premiere place après celles de " La Fontaine." L'Eveſque, Vol. V. p. 342.

" Ses fables peuvent être comparées à ce qu'on a fait de " mieux dans ce genre, depuis l'inimitable La Fontaine." Le Clerc, p. 77.

" to

" to prefer them, at leaſt to compare them " with thoſe of Fontaine."

Sumorokof was alſo author of a few ſhort and detached hiſtorical pieces. A Chronicle of Moſcow, in which he relates the origin of that city; and abridges the reigns of its monarchs from Ivan Danilovitch to Feodor Alexievitch.—A Hiſtory of the firſt inſurrection of the Strelitz in 1682, by which Ivan was appointed joint ſovereign with Peter the Great, and the princeſs Sophia regent.—An account of Stenko Razin's rebellion. His ſtyle in theſe pieces is ſaid to be clear and perſpicuous, but ſomewhat too flowery and poetical for proſe.

Sumorokof obtained by his merit the favour and protection of his ſovereign. Elizabeth gave him the rank of brigadier; appointed him director of the Ruſſian theatre; and ſettled upon him a penſion of £. 400 per annum. Catharine II. created him counſellor of ſtate; conferred upon him the order of St. Anne; and honoured him with many inſtances of munificence and diſtinction until his death, which carried him off at Moſcow, on the 1ſt of October 1777, in the 51ſt year of his age.

" With reſpect to his diſpoſition," ſays his biographer,

biographer, "this celebrated poet ſeems to "have poſſeſſed a good and amiable heart; "but his extreme ſenſibility, an excellent "quality in a poet when tempered with phi-"loſophy, occaſioned that ſingularity and ve-"hemence of character, which gave ſo much "trouble and uneaſineſs to all his acquaint-"ance, but particularly to himſelf. He was "polite and condeſcending towards thoſe who "treated him with reſpect, but haughty to "thoſe who behaved to him with pride. "He knew no deceit; he was a true friend, "and an open enemy; and could neither for-"get an obligation nor an injury. Paſſionate, "and frequently inconſiderate in his purſuits, "he could not bear the leaſt oppoſition; and "oftentimes looked upon the moſt trifling "circumſtance as the greateſt evil. His ex-"traordinary fame, the many favours con-"ferred upon him by the empreſs, the indul-"gence and veneration of his friends, might "have made him extremely fortunate, if he "had underſtood the art of being ſo. He had "conceived a great, perhaps too great, an idea "of the character and merits of a true poet; "and could not endure to ſee with patience "this noble and much-eſteemed art, which "had been conſecrated by Homer, Virgil,

"and

" and other great men, profaned by perſons " without judgement or abilities. Theſe pre- " tenders, he would ſay, ſhock the public " with their nonſenſe in rhyme; and clothe " their monſtrous conceptions in the dreſs of " the Muſes. The public recoil from them " with diſguſt and averſion; and, deceived by " their appearance, treat with irreverence thoſe " children of heaven, the true Muſes."

The examples of Lomonozof and Sumorokof have tended to diffuſe a ſpirit of poetry, and a taſte for polite learning, among the Ruſſians, and they are ſucceeded by a numerous band of poets *. Of theſe I ſhall only mention one writer, who has diſtinguiſhed himſelf by compoſing the firſt epic poem in the Ruſſian tongue.

Michael Kheraſkof, a perſon of a noble family, has excelled in ſeveral ſpecies of compoſition. His works are, a poem upon the Utility of Science; ſeveral tragedies and comedies; Pindaric odes, Anacreontics, fables, idyls, and ſatires; a romance, called Ariadne in Thebes; Numa Pompilius; a poem, in four cantos, in honour of the naval victory over the Turks at the battle of Tcheſme: but the

* Many of theſe are enumerated by Mr. Le Clerc, Hiſt. Mod. p. 78—98.

piece

piece by which he has acquired the greateſt fame, is an epic poem in twelve cantos, called the Roſſiada, written in Iambic meaſure of ſix feet in rhyme. Its ſubject is the conqueſt of Caſan by Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. or, as the author has expreſſed himſelf, "I ſing Ruſſia "delivered from the yoke of barbarians; the "might of the Tartars laid low, and their pride "humbled: I ſing the ſtrifes and bloody con-"flicts of ancient armies; Ruſſia's triumph; "and Caſan's ſubjection." This work is greatly admired by the natives; and may juſtly be conſidered as forming an epoch in the hiſtory of their poetry. The general plan ſeems well diſpoſed; the events follow each other in a rapid but orderly ſucceſſion; and the imagination of the reader is kept alive by frequent ſcenes of terror, in which the author ſeems particularly to excel. The ſubject is extremely intereſting to the Ruſſians; and the poet has artfully availed himſelf of the popular belief by the introduction of ſaints and martyrs for the machinery of his poem. Mr. Le Clerc informs us, that this poem, while it contains ſeveral ſtriking paſſages of great beauty, is in many parts deficient in harmony; a defect, he adds, which the author, by retouching and correcting, is capable of removing.

Mr.

Mr. Kheraſkof has not in the preſent reign failed of acquiring the rewards due to his extraordinary talents; having been ſucceſſively appointed vice-preſident of the college of mines, counſellor of ſtate, and curator of the univerſity of Moſcow.

Lomonozof is a rare, and perhaps a ſingle inſtance of any Ruſſian of low degree, who was not an eccleſiaſtic, that has attained, from ſo mean a condition, to great eminence in literature. But it is probable, that ſuch examples will ſoon ceaſe to be uncommon; ſince the ſchools, inſtituted by Catharine in every province of her wide-extended empire, will facilitate the acquiſition of learning among the lower claſs of people; ſince the zeal for inquiry is ſpread among the natives; and honour and promotion are known by experience to be the certain attendants on literary acquiſitions. Indeed, ſuch is the ſpirit with which the empreſs protects and encourages learning; that ſcarcely any work of merit makes its appearance, for which the author does not inſtantly receive ſome mark of diſtinction or liberality.

In order to ſpread a taſte of literature among her ſubjects, Catharine appointed, in 1768, a committee to order and ſuperintend tranſla-

tions

tions of the claſſics, and the beſt modern authors, into the Ruſſian tongue; and allowed £. 1000 per annum towards defraying the expence of ſuch undertakings.

The following is a liſt of the tranſlations which had made their appearance before the 8th of July 1774*.

Homer's Batrachomyomachia; Characters of Theophraſtus; Ælian; Herodian; Diodorus Siculus; Terence; Cicero *De Finibus*; Cæſar's Commentaries; Three Epiſtles of Ovid; his Metamorphoſes in proſe; *Tacitus de Moribus Germanorum*; Paterculus; Valerius Maximus; Stritter's *Memoriæ populorum olim ad Danubium incolentium e Script. Byzan. Hiſt. erutæ*; Muller's Account of the Antient Inhabitants of Ruſſia; Gmelin's Travels through Ruſſia; Pallas's Travels through Ruſſia; His Pruſſian Majeſty's Treatiſe on the Reaſon for making and repealing Laws; Monteſquieu's *Conſiderations ſur la grandeur et la decadence des Romains*; his *Lyſimaque*, *Dialogue de Sylla et d'Eucrate*, *Eſſai ſur le Gout*, and *Temple de Gnide*; Dimſdale's Treatiſe on Inoculation; Chalotais *ſur l'Education*; Hiſtory and Treatiſes of the Amſterdam Society for Recovery of Drowned Perſons; The Ottoman Empire; Republic of Raguſa, Great-Britain, Portugal, Kingdom of Pruſſia, from Buſching's Geography; Voltaire's Candide; a Dialogue of St. Evremond between three perſons of different ſentiments; various articles from the Encyclopedie; Juſti's Foundation of the Power and Happineſs of States; *Calliere De la maniere de negocier avec les ſouverains*; Rouſſeau's Abridgement of *St. Pierre's Projet d'une pais perpetuelle*; St. Real's *Conſpiration des Eſpagnols contre la Re-*

* See Ruſſ. Bib. for 1775, p. 74.

publique

publique de Veniſe; Vertot's *Revolution Romaines*; Mably's *Hiſtoire Grecque*; Chineſe Reflections from the Manſhur tongue; The Viſible World; Lambert's *Traité de l'Amitié*; Taſſo's *Jeruſalemme Liberata*; Gulliver's Travels; Joſeph Andrews; Jonathan Wild the Great; Amelia; of the Ventriloquiſts; Gellert's Betſchweſter; the Art of being polite; Letters upon ſeveral Phyſical and Philoſophical Subjects; Macquer's Chymiſtry; the Duty of an Officer; Dictionary of the French Academy; on the advantage of inſtructing Youth in Claſſical Literature; Rollin's Belles Lettres; Bell's Journey through Ruſſia.

This liſt mentions 83 books, the tranſlations whereof were in the preſs; 78, of which tranſlations were making; and 63, which the committee propoſed to be tranſlated.

I have received an account of the following tranſlations, which have been ſince made.

Henriade; *Diable Boiteux*; Gellert's Works; Anderſon's Hiſtory of Commerce; Robertſon's Hiſtory of Charles V. from the French tranſlation; Pallas *Samlungen Mongoliſchen Volkerſchaften*; Engliſh Grammar; Homer's Iliad; Virgil's Æneid; Lucian's Dialogues; Milton's Paradiſe Loſt; Coyer's *Hiſtoire de J. Sobieſki*; Monteſquieu's *Eſprit des Loix*; Mallet's *Hiſt. de Dannemarc*; *Hiſt. Generale de Voyages*; Virgil's Eclogues and Georgics; *Cicero de Natura Deorum*; Plato's Works; Heſiod; Coxe's Ruſſian Diſcoveries; *Les Incas de Marmontel*; Bielfield's Political Inſtitutions; *Hiſt. de la Maiſon de Brandenburgh*; *Memoires de Sully*; Blackſtone's Commentaries; Hiſt. Aug. Script. Sex; Pope's Eſſay on Man; Locke on Education; Livy; ſeveral Epiſtles and Odes of Horace; Young's Six Weeks Tour, tranſlated by particular order of the empreſs, for the purpoſe of diffuſing the knowledge of practical agriculture, &c. &c.

With

With reſpect to claſſical literature; the Greek language is yet taught in very few of the ſchools; is ſcarcely known to the laity; and is a rare qualification even among the regular clergy. Latin is more common, being underſtood by many of the regular clergy, and not unfrequently cultivated by perſons of improved education. Many of the claſſics have been tranſlated by natives into the Ruſſian tongue; ſeveral editions of the moſt approved Greek and Roman authors have been publiſhed at Moſcow and Peterſburgh; but the editors have been chiefly foreigners, encouraged to this attempt by the patronage of thoſe among the Ruſſian nobility who are not deficient in antient literature, and excited by the opening genius of the nation. Among the natives, however, who have rendered themſelves illuſtrious in this branch of knowledge, I muſt not omit the name of Plato archbiſhop of Moſcow, who is highly eminent for claſſical learning; and, among the naturalized foreigners, that of Eugenius archbiſhop of Slavenſk and Kherſon; who, in the true ſpirit of the original, has tranſlated into Greek hexameters the Eclogues and Georgics of Virgil; a work printed in folio, at the expence of prince

Potemkin, and exhibiting a magnificent ſpecimen of typography. This ſame ingenious author is employed in tranſlating into the ſame language the Æneid, in which he has made conſiderable progreſs.

TRAVELS

INTO

RUSSIA.

BOOK VI.

CHAP. I.

Population and revenues of the Ruſſian *empire.* — *Bank of aſſignation.* — *Paper currency.*

THE population of the Ruſſian dominions may be eſtimated from the following table of the poll-tax aſſeſſed in 1782.

LIST of the Peaſants paying the POLL-TAX in the ſeparate Governments.

Government of Moſcow - - -	440,359
St. Peterſburgh - -	283,295
Wiburgh - - -	88,128
Tver - - - -	446,321
Novogorod - -	269,320
Pſkof - - - -	288,125
Smolenſko - - -	445,257
Mohilef - - -	331,033
Polotzk - - - -	311,462
Orel - - - -	462,520
Kurſk - - -	458,830
Karkof - - -	392,944

Government of	Voronetz	394,934
	Tambof	438,025
	Reſan	434,679
	Toola	418,927
	Kaloogha	384,423
	Yaroſlaf	370,961
	Vologda	349,386
	Volodimir	433,820
	Koſtroma	396,269
	Niſhnie-Novogorod	398,317
	Viatka	407,950
	Perm	373,252
	Tobolſk	166,225
	Kolyvan	39,297
	Irkutſk	123,232
	Ufa	177,798
	Simbirſk	361,159
	Kaſan	373,354
	Penſa	318,076
	Saratof	282,817
	Aſtrachan	23,776
	Aſof	177,849
	New Ruſſia	210,539
	Kiof	387,792
	Tchernighof	368,099
	Novogorod Sieverſki	365,541
	Riga	263,525

Government

Government of Revel - - - -	99,564
Sum total of peaſants paying the Poll-tax - - -	12,757,180

By doubling this number for the females, we have for the peaſants, male and female, in the whole Ruſſian empire - 25,514,360

To this we muſt add nobles -	200,000
Clergy and their families - -	120,000
Merchants and families - -	250,000
Natives of Crim Tartary and the Kuban - - - - - -	80,000
Wandering hordes of Siberia -	600,000
And the total population of the Ruſſian empire will, according to this calculation, be - - - - -	26,764,360

A number, however large, greatly diſproportioned to the extent of the empire.

The revenues of Ruſſia, beſides the impoſts paid by the Ukraine, and by the provinces conquered from Sweden, chiefly ariſe from the poll-tax; the duties of import and export;

the exciſe upon ſalt; the crown and church lands; the profits of the mint; and the ſale of ſpirituous liquors, &c.

The poll-tax was introduced in 1721 by Peter I.; and, at the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs, was exacted from all perſons, excepting the nobles and gentry, the clergy, the navy, the army, the Coſſacs, the inhabitants of the Ukraine and conquered provinces. All who were liable to this tax were rated in different proportions, as they were merchants, burghers, or peaſants. By the manifeſto of 1775, promulgated after the concluſion of the Turkiſh war, the merchants were exempted from this tax; and it now includes only the burghers and peaſants.

Every fifteen or twenty years, the number of inhabitants throughout the empire is uſually taken; and, in each diſtrict ſubject to the poll-tax, all males, infants as well as adults, under the deſcription of a burgher or peaſant, are aſſeſſed *; from that period the ſame aſſeſſment is regularly

* It is no eaſy matter to convey a clear notion of this tax, as well from the complicated method of impoſing it, as from the different changes which are occaſionally made in the mode of aſſeſſment.—A burgher pays uſually 4*s.* 9*d.* per annum; a peaſant of the crown, in ſome inſtances, 8*s.*; in others, 4*s.* 4½*d.*; a peaſant of an individual, 2*s.* 9*d.*—Every perſon exerciſing the trade of a taylor, ſmith, ſhoemaker, maſon, or any ſimilar handicraft trade, and who enrols himſelf in the company of any town, pays annually, beſide the poll-tax, 2*s.* Every peaſant who quits his village, to trade at Peterſburgh, Moſcow, or elſewhere, pays 5*d.* to the crown for his paſſport. Theſe, and many other ſimilar taxes, are all ranged under the poll-tax. The diſſenters, or old believers in the Ruſſian church, pay double poll-tax. Some burghers and peaſants, ſuch as the yamſhics who find poſt-horſes, and others, are exempted from the poll-tax; others pay it in labour; ſome in furs, &c. I found it impoſſible to give equal attention to every object; and I frankly own, that amidſt the variety of intelligence which I procured in Ruſſia, I do not perfectly comprehend each mode of aſſeſſment in the poll-tax.

paid

paid till the next reviſion, whether the population of that diſtrict increaſes or diminiſhes; in the latter caſe, the inhabitants or the landholders are bound to make up the deficiency; in the former, the tax is not augmented, and of courſe falls much eaſier upon a larger number of perſons. The landholders are anſwerable for the payment of the money at which their peaſants are rated.

By a late imperial edict, the poll-tax was extended over the Ukraine and the conquered provinces; and the other taxes paid by the peaſants were aboliſhed. This alteration has greatly increaſed the public revenue; and the poll-tax is conſiderably more productive. And as ſome peaſants are aſſeſſed at more than two roubles, and others at leſs than a rouble, we may perhaps ſtate the average tax paid by each peaſant at a rouble and a quarter. From this computation the poll-tax produces 15,435,000 roubles, or nearly double its former produce.

The cuſtoms, or average duties on exports and imports, amount to 5,000,000 roubles.

The exciſe upon ſalt, which is appropriated to the empreſs's privy purſe, produces, upon an average, 2,000,000. Her majeſty has twice diminiſhed the price of ſalt nearly 30 per cent.

The mines * and coinage, and duties upon iron at the forge, yield 3,395,910, excluſive of the profits from the coinage of gold and ſilver imported into Ruſſia.

The church-lands, which are now annexed to the crown, produce about 2,000,000: part of this money is allotted to pay the ſalaries of the archbiſhops, biſhops, and regular clergy, for the maintenance of the ſeveral monaſteries, and for the penſions of officers and ſoldiers diſmiſſed from the ſervice. The remainder, which belongs to the privy purſe, amounts to about 300.000 roubles.

The ſale of ſpirituous liquors forms at preſent nearly

* See Chap. VI. of this Book.

one-

one-third of the Ruſſian revenue. In every part of the empire, excepting the Ukraine and the conquered provinces, the crown alone has the privilege of ſelling ſpirituous liquors. This branch of finance yields 10,000,000.

RECAPITULATION.

	Roubles.
Poll-tax - - - - - -	15,435,000
Cuſtoms - - - - - -	5,000,000
Salt - - - - - - -	2,000,000
Gold and ſilver from the mines, profits of the coinage, and duty on iron at the forge -	3,395,910
Farm of ſpirituous liquors - - - -	10,000,000
Church lands - - - - -	2,000,000
Duties on ſales of lands and houſes, ſtamped paper, on mills, horſes, baths, ſhops, poſt-office, and other duties omitted - -	4,000,000
Roubles -	41,830,910

Or, eſtimating the rouble at 3*s.* 4*d.* at £. 6,971,818.

It is curious to obſerve how the gradual increaſe of civilization in the Ruſſian empire has been followed by a gradual increaſe in its revenues. At the acceſſion of Peter the Great, they amounted to £. 1,000,000; and at his death to £. 1,600,000. Elizabeth raiſed them to £. 3,600,000; when the preſent empreſs aſcended the throne, they produced £. 4,400,000; now yield near £. 7,000,000; and are ſtill in an increaſing ſtate. This ſum is ſufficient

cient for the peace-eſtabliſhment. Of this revenue, the expences of the army and navy amount to about £. 3,176,000; thoſe of the civil eſtabliſhment to £. 2,972,485; and the remainder, or £. 800,000, is appropriated to the privy purſe of the empreſs. But it is difficult to conceive how ſhe is able to maintain the magnificence of her court; the number of public inſtitutions; the numerous buildings * which are continually erecting at her expence; the liberality with which ſhe encourages the arts and ſciences; the purchaſes which ſhe is continually making in every country in Europe; and the immenſe donations which ſhe confers upon the moſt favoured of her ſubjects.

The revenues of Ruſſia may be conſiderably augmented in caſe of emergency, as was evident during the Turkiſh war, by the increaſe of the poll-tax, and the addition of many new impoſts. It ſhould alſo be obſerved, that in 1775 the empreſs remitted fifty-ſeven taxes, and ten in the following year.

The great ſupport of the laſt war was a new bank, called the Bank of Aſſignation,

* In time of peace her majeſty allots at leaſt £. 200,000 per ann. for the purpoſe of building.

which

which was eſtabliſhed during the hoſtilities againſt the Turks. When copper money could not be coined with ſufficient expedition to anſwer the neceſſities of the ſtate, bank notes, to the value of £. 10, £. 15 *, and £. 20, in copper, were iſſued. Theſe notes are changed at the bank in Peterſburgh and Moſcow. The former, which I viſited, is a brick building, containing ſeveral vaulted rooms, each capable of holding £. 400,000 of copper coin in bags, piled one above another; in ſome the money was already placed, and the others were preparing for the reception of the remainder. Since 1784 the old bank notes were called in, and a new iſſue made to the acknowledged amount of 100,000,000 roubles, in notes of five, ten, fifteen, twenty-five, and one hundred roubles. Upon the firſt appearance of this paper, it was received, particularly in the remote parts of the empire, not without difficulty, and the diſcount againſt it was commonly about 3½, and in ſome places even 6 per cent. Its obvious advantages, however, over copper money ſoon recommended it to general uſe; and it has been found ſo beneficial to commerce,

* Soon after the inſtitution of this bank, ſome notes of 75 roubles, or £. 15, being forged, thoſe bearing that value were called in and deſtroyed.

that

that in 1779 the diſcount in favour of ſilver ſpécie was only one per cent. and it bore a premium of one and an half per cent. over copper money. But ſo large a quantity has been circulated, and the loans which government were obliged to borrow to ſupport the expences of the Turkiſh war, ſo lowered the credit of the ſtate, that in 1790 the diſcount againſt the paper currency was near 20 per cent.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

Admiralty.— Expedition to Cronſtadt.— *Deſcription of* Cronſlot *and the citadel; of the iſland* Retuſari; *and the town of* Cronſtadt. *—Its harbours and dock.—Navy.—Remarks upon* Ruſſia, *conſidered as a maritime power. —General obſervations on the* Ruſſian *army.*

THE Admiralty *, which ſtands on the ſouth bank of the Neva, oppoſite to the fortreſs of Peterſburgh, was built by Peter the Great; and is a large building of brick, ſurrounded with a rampart and ditch: it is the great receptacle for ſhips' ſtores; and contains large magazines of cordage, ſails, maſts, anchors, which are ſent to Cronſtadt for the equipment of the fleet. A large area, which lies between the front of the building and the Neva, is uſed for the conſtruction of veſſels: when I was at Peterſburgh, five men of war and two frigates were upon the ſtocks †.

I have

* I am informed that the Admiralty is intended to be removed to Cronſtadt.

† The men of war which are framed in this dock are, in their paſſage to Cronſtadt, lifted over the bar by means of

I have already obſerved, that in our expedition to Peterhof and Oranienbaum, we viſited Cronſtadt, a deſcription of which I reſerved for the preſent occaſion.

Cronſtadt, at which port the greateſt part of the Ruſſian navy is ſituated, ſtands upon the iſland of Retuſari, in the Gulf of Finland; and was founded by Peter I. as being provided with the ſafeſt harbour in theſe parts, and as forming a ſtrong bulwark by ſea for the defence of the new metropolis. The only paſſage by which ſhips of burden can approach

of camels: theſe machines were originally invented by the celebrated De Witt, for the purpoſe of conveying large veſſels from Amſterdam over the Pampus; and were introduced into Ruſſia by Peter the Great, who obtained the model of them when he worked in Holland as a common ſhipwright. A camel is compoſed of two ſeparate parts, whoſe outſides are perpendicular, and whoſe inſides are concave, ſhaped ſo as to embrace the hull of a ſhip on both ſides. Each part has a ſmall cabin, with ſixteen pumps and ten plugs, and contains twenty men. They are braced to a ſhip underneath by means of cables, and entirely incloſe its ſides and bottom; being then towed to the bar, the plugs are opened, and the water admitted, until the camel ſinks with the ſhip, and runs a-ground. Then the water being pumped out, the camel riſes, lifts up the veſſel, and the whole is towed over the bar. This machine can raiſe the ſhip eleven feet, or, in other words, make it draw eleven feet leſs water.

Peterſburgh,

Peterſburgh, lies on the ſouth ſide of Retuſari, through a narrow channel; one ſide whereof is commanded by Cronſtadt, and the oppoſite by Cronſlot and the citadel.

Cronſlot, which ſtands upon a ſmall iſland of ſand, is a circular wooden building, and ſurrounded with fortifications of wood that jut into the water: it contains a garriſon of an hundred men. The citadel is another ſmall wooden fortreſs, raiſed alſo upon an adjacent ſand-bank, and capable of holding about thirty ſoldiers: all large veſſels muſt ſail between Cronſtadt and theſe two fortreſſes, expoſed to the fire of the oppoſite batteries; for the other parts of the gulf are only from one to eleven feet in depth. All theſe fortifications were, at the time of their conſtruction, eſteemed places of conſiderable ſtrength; but now they derive their conſequence more from their paſt importance, than from any reſiſtance they could make againſt the attack of a powerful fleet.

The iſland Retuſari is a long ſlip of land, or rather ſand; through the middle of which runs a ridge of granite. It is 20 miles from Peterſburgh by water, four from the ſhore of Ingria, and nine from the coaſt of Carelia. It is about ten miles in circumference; and

was overſpread with firs and pines when Peter firſt conquered it from the Swedes. It contains at preſent about 30,000 inhabitants, including the ſailors and garriſon; the former of whom amount to about 12,000, the latter to 1500 men. The iſland affords a ſmall quantity of paſture; produces vegetables, and a few fruits, ſuch as apples, currants, gooſeberries, and ſtrawberries, which thrive in this northern climate.

Cronſtadt is built upon the ſouth-eaſtern extremity of the iſland; and is defended towards the ſea by wooden piers * projecting into the water, and towards the land by ramparts and baſtions. It is a very ſtraggling place, and occupies, like all the Ruſſian towns, a larger ſpace of ground than the number of habitations ſeem to require: the houſes are moſtly of wood, excepting a few fronting the harbour, which are of brick ſtuccoed white. Among the latter are the imperial hoſpital for ſailors, the barracks, and the academy for marines and officers of the navy. That ſeminary contained, in 1778, three hundred and ſeventy cadets, who are clothed, main-

* In 1784 Cronſtadt was fortifying with ſtone piers. The eſtimate was 7,000,000 roubles.

tained, and taught at the expence of the crown: they are admitted at the age of five, and are ſuffered to remain until they reach their ſeventeenth year. They learn accounts, mathematics, drawing, fortification, and navigation; and have maſters in the French, German, Engliſh, and Swediſh languages. They are trained to naval affairs, and make an annual cruize in the Baltic as far as Revel.

Cronſtadt has a ſeparate haven appropriated to the men of war, and another to merchant-ſhips. The men of war's haven contained twenty ſhips of the line, and nine frigates, which were diſmaſted, with their guns and tackle on ſhore. We went on board of the Ezekiel of 80 guns, eſteemed the fineſt ſhip in the navy: ſhe was built under the inſpection of admiral Knowles, and carries 800 men.

Cloſe to the haven for merchant-ſhips is a canal and ſeveral dry docks, begun in 1719, by Peter I. for the purpoſe of refitting the men of war; this uſeful work was neglected under his ſucceſſors, and was not completed until the reign of his daughter Elizabeth: it has been ſtill further beautified and improved by the preſent empreſs; and is now applied for building as well as careening ſhips

of the line. At the extremity of theſe docks is a great reſervoir, 568 feet in length, which contains water ſufficient, and half the quantity over, to ſupply all the docks; which is pumped out by means of a fire engine, the diameter of whoſe cylinder is ſix feet. The length of this work, from the beginning of the canal to the end of the laſt dock, is 4221 feet. The ſides of the docks are faced with ſtone, and the bottom is paved with granite; they are 40 feet deep, and 105 broad; and are capable of containing nine men of war upon the ſtocks.

Nothing can convey a higher idea of the vaſt abilities and perſevering genius of Peter the Great, than the ſituation in which he found the Ruſſian navy, and the ſtate in which he left it. Though in the beginning of his reign he did not poſſeſs a ſingle ſhip in the Baltic; yet in the courſe of a few years he equipped a fleet of fifty ſail of the line, which rode miſtreſs of that ſea. Under his ſucceſſors the Ruſſian navy was greatly neglected; and it was in ſo bad a condition at the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs, that ſhe may be ſaid to have almoſt equalled her great predeceſſor in the creation of a new fleet: ſhe invited ſeveral Engliſh captains and ſhipbuilders

into Ruſſia, and particularly admiral Knowles, who was remarkable for his ſkill in naval architecture. Under her auſpices Europe lately beheld with aſtoniſhment the Ruſſian flag diſplayed in the Archipelago; and the Turkiſh fleet annihilated at Tcheſme by a ſquadron from the North.

Ruſſia produces every article neceſſary for the conſtruction and equipment of ſhips, which are built chiefly at Cronſtadt, Peterſburgh, and Archangel: thoſe conſtructed at Cronſtadt and at Peterſburgh are framed with oak; while thoſe from Archangel are made with larch-wood: the latter are much leſs adapted than the former for an engagement. For the ſupply of the dock-yards at Peterſburgh and Cronſtadt, the oak is ſent from the province of Caſan; the Ukraine and the government of Moſcow ſupply the hemp; the maſts are procured from the vaſt tracts of foreſt which lie between Novogorod and the Gulf of Finland; or are furniſhed by the provinces lately diſmembered from Poland. Pitch and tar are obtained from Wiburgh.

Manufactures of cordage and ſail-cloths are eſtabliſhed in different parts of the empire; and the magazines of Peterſburgh and Archangel

angel are always plentifully ſtored with large quantities of both thoſe articles.

The navy of Ruſſia, in the ports * of the Baltic and Archangel, conſiſted, in the latter end of 1778, of 38 ſhips of the line, 15 frigates, 4 prames, 109 gallies †.

Of this number about 28 ſhips of the line and ten frigates, including thoſe built with larch-wood, were fit for immediate ſervice. In caſe, however, of neceſſity or danger, Ruſſia producing all the materials for the conſtruction and equipment of ſhips, her navy might ſoon be conſiderably increaſed, of which I have given a remarkable inſtance on a former occaſion ‡. But though Ruſſia, ſince the beginning of this century, has made ſurpriſing exertions in the marine, and rapidly become more powerful at ſea than her neighbouring kingdoms in the North; yet, in naval affairs, ſhe muſt be conſidered as ſtill in her infancy, being in a great degree indebted

* As I could not obtain an exact account of the Ruſſian ſhips in the Black Sea, I have choſe to be ſilent on that head; I ſhall only obſerve, that ſeveral men of war and frigates were building at St. Demetri, Taurof, and Kherſon.

† See a liſt of the Ruſſian navy in the Appendix.

‡ See Vol. II. Book IV. Chap. V.

to the Engliſh, as well for the conſtruction of her ſhips, as for manœuvring and diſciplining her fleet. Many circumſtances indeed concur in retarding the progreſs of her maritime ſtrength; 1. The want of ports in the Ocean; 2. The ſmall extent of her ſea-coaſt, and that obſtructed by ice; 3. A deficiency of experienced ſeamen.

1. With reſpect to the firſt cauſe, it is obvious that ſhe poſſeſſes not a ſingle port upon the Ocean, excepting that of Archangel; which is of no uſe but in a commercial light, as well on account of its great diſtance from the other European ſeas, as becauſe the navigation round the North Cape of Lapland, ſituated in the 72d degree of latitude, is only open in the midſt of ſummer. 2. In regard to the ſecond cauſe, it has been juſtly remarked, that there are very few inſtances of any nation's having arrived at a great height of naval power, which did not poſſeſs a conſiderable tract of ſea-coaſt; and Ruſſia, excepting the late acquiſitions upon the Black Sea, the deſolate ſhores round Archangel and in the Frozen Ocean, and the inhoſpitable regions of Kamtchatka, can boaſt no greater portion of maritime country than what lies between Wiburgh and Riga: a mere point for ſo large an empire,

empire, and rendered leſs valuable for bordering upon the Gulf of Finland and the Baltic; inland ſeas without tides; when compared with the Ocean ſcarcely ſuperior to lakes; and inacceſſible * for at leaſt five months in the year. 3. The third cauſe is a deficiency of experienced † ſeamen. Government, indeed, retains in its pay about 18,000 ſailors, moſt of whom have never ſerved: a few in time of peace make annual cruizes into the Baltic, or perhaps as far as the Engliſh Channel; and others are employed in the ſummer ſeaſon in navigating the veſſels laden with merchandize from Cronſtadt to Peterſburgh. But ſuch nurſeries as theſe are by no means ſufficient to rear a large number of ſeamen; nor can the deficiency be ſupplied, in caſe of an immediate war, by the ſailors from private veſſels: for Ruſſia has ſcarcely any merchant ſhips; which is chiefly owing to the ſtate of vaſſalage, and

* The ports in the Baltic being frozen during that period, no veſſels can take their departure before the month of April, and muſt return in October.

† In the naval expedition againſt the Turks, it was a remark made by ſeveral of our officers, that the diſtance from St. Peterſburgh to the Archipelago was a very fortunate circumſtance, as the Ruſſians acquired experience during the length of the voyage.

the ſtrict laws that prevent the natives from quitting their country without formal licence. A merchant who fits out a trading veſſel, muſt firſt apply to the admiralty for permiſſion to take on board a certain number of natives: leave being obtained, the paſſes for each ſailor are brought and lodged in the admiralty; and a ſufficient ſecurity, at the rate of £. 30 per man, is given for their return. Thus, without altering the fundamental laws of the kingdom, and totally innovating on the long-eſtabliſhed rights of vaſſalage, there cannot be an adequate number of ſailors to man a large fleet upon ſudden emergencies. In a word, no kingdom, without diſtant colonies, without conſiderable fiſheries, and without an extenſive ſea coaſt to familiarize its inhabitants to the dangers of the Ocean, is likely to acquire ſuch a marine as to become formidable to the great naval powers of Europe.

The navy of Ruſſia, however, with all theſe deficiencies, is ſufficient to protect her coaſts; to convoy her merchantmen; to make her reſpectable in the Baltic; or, in caſe of a Turkiſh war, to ſend a fleet into the Archipelago. It is her advantage to maintain a good correſpondence with the great maritime powers, whom ſhe ſupplies with naval ſtores; and who are,

on

on that account, equally intereſted to reſpect and cultivate her friendſhip. The frontiers of her immenſe dominions border upon Sweden, Poland, Turkey, Perſia, and China; and the ſecurity of her empire depends as much upon her army as her navy.

The Ruſſian army is divided into regular and irregular troops.

The regulars, conſiſting chiefly of infantry, include all thoſe who wear uniforms, and are trained to European diſcipline. The Ruſſians, when properly diſciplined, are very excellent ſoldiers; being brave, ſteady, obedient, patient of fatigue and hardſhip, and ſcarcely ever guilty of deſertion. Since my departure from Peterſburgh, theſe regulars are ſaid to have been conſiderably increaſed; but to what amount I cannot pretend to determine.

With reſpect to the irregular troops, ſome of whom are ſtill armed with bows and arrows, their number is very conſiderable, and can ſcarcely be aſcertained: they conſiſt entirely of horſe, who are of uſe indeed in a war againſt the Turks, Perſians, and Chineſe; but would add very little to the Ruſſian ſtrength in an European campaign. Of this deſultory body, the corps of Coſſacs, who are eſteemed the moſt excellent, and who

who bear the greateſt reſemblance to regular troops, are thus deſcribed in the journal of Colonel Floyd.

" The Coſſacs are in general perſons of low " ſtature; they wear ſmall whiſkers, and " ſhave their heads, excepting the crown, " upon which they leave a ſmall circle of " hair. Their dreſs is a fur-cap, a looſe long " Aſiatic robe, and large pantaloons, boots or " half-boots, without ſpurs, and a whip hang- " ing from the right wriſt. Their arms are " a lance about twelve feet in length, a brace " of piſtols ſlung on the left ſide, a cartridge- " box on the right, and a ſmall ſcymitar with- " out any guard, or even croſs-bar. Their " horſes are ponies, which are ſtrong and ac- " tive, but not fleet. The accoutrements " are a kind of huſſar-ſaddle, a ſmall ſnaffle " with large eyes and no horns, to the near " eye of which is faſtened a thong, that is " alſo tied to the ſaddle, and which occa- " ſionally ſerves for a halter. They ride ſhort " and full-footed; raiſe themſelves on their " ſtirrups; bend their bodies with great acti- " vity; and throw themſelves into different " attitudes. They never puſh their horſes on " full ſpeed in a ſtraight line; but in gallop- " ing turn them in various directions, deſcrib-

" ing

" ing in their progreſs a ſerpentine line, and " wheeling continually to the right and left. " When not in action, they carry their lance " ſlung on the foot; when engaged, they pre- " ſent it againſt the enemy by holding it al- " moſt in the middle, and counterpoizing it " under the arm; and, from conſtant practice, " direct it againſt an object with great dexte- " rity. In retreating, they reſt the lance upon " their ſhoulder as a defence againſt blows; " and occaſionally oppoſe the point to a pur- " ſuing enemy.

" Theſe Coſſacs, on account of their aver- " ſion to regular diſcipline, are not trained to " attack in ſquadron; but act only as ſkir- " miſhers, and are ſaid to be extremely adroit " in their deſultory evolutions: they are uſu- " ally let looſe upon a flying enemy, when they " do great execution. They excel as patrols; " and are remarkable for their vigilance on " out-poſts, and their knowledge of the coun- " try. The ſagacity, which they derive from " habit and practice, is in ſome particulars " aſtoniſhing: by examining a tract which " has been lately traverſed by the enemy in " the moſt tumultuary manner, they can diſ- " cover, with tolerable exactneſs, the num- " ber of horſes that have paſſed over it, and

" how

" how many of them were led. Some of them " can deſcry, if any movement is taking place " among a corps of troops, far beyond the " reach of uſual obſervation; others, by ap- " plying their ears to the ground, can diſtin- " guiſh the buz of men, or the clattering of " horſes' feet, at a very conſiderable diſtance. " They can take the field every day without " intermiſſion; and are indefatigable in ha- " raſſing the enemy: they are contented with " a very ſcanty ſubſiſtence, and do not require " any forage to be carried for their horſes.

" There are eight regiments of theſe Coſ- " ſacs: each regiment conſiſts of five ſqua- " drons, and each ſquadron of an hundred " men, beſide officers. There are alſo ſix " other regiments of horſe, called regular " pikemen, ſimilar in their arms and accou- " trements to the Coſſacs, and diſtinguiſhed " from them only by a trifling difference of " dreſs."

From the ſtate of the Ruſſian army (which is printed in his Appendix) I ſhall extract the following table.

Computed

Computed Force of the Ruſſian Army in 1785.

Guards, horſe and foot - - -	10,000
Regular cavalry - - - - -	69,465
Regular field infantry and artillery -	255,134
Garriſon battalions - - - - -	49,000
Artillery ditto - - - - -	5,500
Total -	369,099

Irregulars not included.

Such was the ſtate of the Ruſſian army upon paper; but the real number of effective men always falls ſhort of this nominal liſt. For it is probable that the effective troops on the peace eſtabliſhment ſcarcely exceed 200,000; and it is remarkable, that the Ruſſians can ſeldom bring into the field more than 100,000 effective men.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Riſe and progreſs of the Engliſh *trade into* Ruſſia.—*Commerce of the* Britiſh *Factory of* St. Peterſburgh.—*Exports and imports.*

THE commercial intercourſe between Ruſſia and the northern parts of Europe was begun and carried on by the Hanſeatic towns; which, in 1276, eſtabliſhed factories at Novogorod and Pleſcof*, and for a conſiderable period entirely engroſſed the trade of this empire. The accidental diſcovery of Archangel, in 1553, deprived the Hanſeatic towns of a great part of this lucrative commerce; and transferred it to the Engliſh. On the 11th of May, in the above-mentioned year, three ſhips ſailed from Deptford, in order to explore the Northern Seas, under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby. Two of theſe veſſels penetrated as high as the 72d degree of latitude, to the coaſt of Spitzbergen;

* The merchants of Hamburgh and Lubec, and of the other Hanſeatic towns, in carrying on this traffic, uſually ſailed to Revel or Narva, and from thence paſſed through Dorpt to Pleſcof and Novogorod. S. R. G. V. p. 418; and Buſ. Hiſt. Mag. X. 291.

and

and being afterwards forced by ſtreſs of weather into the bay of the river Arzina in Ruſſian Lapland; both their crews were frozen to death. Richard Chanceller, who commanded the other ſhip, called the Bonaventure, diſcovering the country bordering upon the White Sea, landed near the mouth of the Dvina, in a bay, which he denominated the Bay of St. Nicholas, from a convent of that name, near the preſent port of Archangel. Information of his arrival being inſtantly diſpatched to Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. the tzar ſent for him to Moſcow; diſtinguiſhed him with many marks of kindneſs and attention; received in the moſt favourable manner a letter from Edward VI. *; and permitted the Engliſh to open a commerce with Ruſſia. Upon Chanceller's return to England, a Ruſſian company was eſtabliſhed by queen Mary; and in the year 1555 he again repaired to Moſcow, accompanied by ſeveral merchants of the incorporated ſociety. To theſe perſons the tzar, among other conſiderable privileges, granted "a free liberty † of trading to any part of his "dominions, without paying any duties either

* Hackluyt, Vol. I. p. 253.

† Ib. p. 265, 266, dated Moſcow, 7060, the ſecond month of February.

"of

" of export or import, that they might exer-
" ciſe all kind of merchandizes in his empires
" and dominions, and every part thereof, freely
" and quietly, without any reſtraint, impeach-
" ment, price, exaction, cuſtome, toll, impoſi-
" tion, or ſubſidie."

The correſpondence between Elizabeth and Ivan, and the confidence which the latter repoſed in the queen, has been already mentioned *; and it is no wonder that the monarch who claimed and obtained the promiſe of an aſylum in England, in caſe he was driven from the throne by a rebellion of his ſubjects, ſhould confer additional immunities on the new company. Theſe privileges, which were renewed upon different occaſions, amounted to an abſolute monopoly, " Ivan forbidding
" all other perſons but the members of the
" ſaid company, and all other nations but the
" Engliſh, to carry on any traffic to any of
" the northern coaſts of Ruſſia †."

During the reign of Ivan, the Engliſh trade greatly flouriſhed; the company ſettled colonies in different parts of the empire; one at Kolmogori, where they even obtained grants of land, erected warehouſes, and formed a

* See Vol. II. Book III. Chap. V.

† Hackluyt, p. 462.

repo-

rope-walk; others at Novogorod and Vologda. Their chief eſtabliſhment was at Moſcow, where the tzar built for their reſidence a large brick edifice, which was called the embaſſador's houſe. The principal merchandize which the firſt Engliſh ſhips exported from Ruſſia, were furs and ſkins, maſts, flax, hemp, cordage, tallow, train oil, tar, pitch, and leather*. The Engliſh commodities were chiefly cloths of all ſorts, cottons, and tin. Another unexpected advantage was derived from this connection with Ruſſia. Ivan Vaſſilievitch, having conquered the Tartars of Caſan and Aſtracan, extended his dominions as far as the Caſpian Sea, and thus eſtabliſhed a communication with the Perſians and Bucharians †. Animated with the hopes of gain, the Engliſh factory obtained a patent for an excluſive trade into Perſia and Bucharia; and ſeveral merchants paſſed through Moſcow to the countries beyond the Caſpian, as will be ſhown in the next chapter.

At the death of Ivan, the Engliſh loſt their great ſupport; and, at the acceſſion of Feodor, the confirmation of their immunities was ſor

* Hackluyt, Vol. I. p. 298—306.

† Ruſſian Diſcoveries, Part III. Chap. I.

ſome time refuſed: this refuſal was owing to the imprudence and impatience of Sir Jerome Bowes, the Engliſh embaſſador, who, offending by his ſupercilious deportment the Ruſſian nobility, occaſioned a revocation of the patent for the monopoly of the Ruſſian trade. In 1586, Mr. Jerome Horſey, the Engliſh agent at Moſcow, obtained the re-eſtabliſhment of ſeveral immunities; and, in 1588, the Engliſh embaſſador, Giles Fletcher *, concluded, thro' the intereſt of Boris Godunof, a treaty of league and amity between Elizabeth and Feodor, the ſecond article of which contains, "A "confirmation and re-eſtabliſhment of the "former privileges of the companie of our "Engliſh merchants, which were infringed "and annulled in the principal points, with "divers neceſſary additions to the ſame, for "the better ordering of their trade in thoſe "countrys hereafter †."

But at length the right of excluſive trade, which had been frequently revoked, and as often renewed, ſeems to have been finally taken away by Boris Godunof; who extended

* Fletcher, who went this embaſſy, and has publiſhed a curious Account of Ruſſia, was fellow of King's College, Cambridge.

† Hackluyt, Vol. I. p. 473.

to

to the Dutch ſeveral immunities which had been hitherto peculiar to the Engliſh; and again reinſtated the Hanſeatic towns in their ancient traffic to Novogorod and Pleſcof *. But ſtill, however, the privileges which remained to the factory were very conſiderable, conſiſting in a free commerce to any part of the Ruſſian dominions without paying any duties of import and export.

At the revolution which placed Demetrius upon the throne, the Engliſh factory conceived a ſtrong hope of recovering its patent of excluſive trade, as appears from a letter written by that tzar to Sir Thomas Smith, the Engliſh embaſſador.

" We, calling to minde the correſpondence, love, and " amity, which was between our father the great lord, " emperor, and great-duke, Ivan Vaſſilievitch, of famous " memory; as alſo our brother the great lord, emperor, " and great-duke, Feodor Ivanovitch, ſole commander " of Ruſſia; and their ſiſter queen Elizabeth, queen of " England: In the like manner we do purpoſe to have " intercourſe, and to be in love with your lord king James, " and more than hath been in former times; and in token " of our ſaid love and amity, we do intend to favour all " his ſubjects within our dominions, and to give unto them " more liberty than they have had heretofore." And a ſhort time before his aſſaſſination, he re-eſtabliſhed the commerce of the Engliſh company, " in the ſame form and manner

* S. R. G. V. p. 159.

" as heretofore was beſtowed on the Engliſh merchants, " in the time of our father of famous memory, the great " lord and Cæſar, and great-duke Evan Vaſſilywich, of all " Ruſſia ſole commander, and as was granted unto them " in the time of our brother the great-duke Feodor Evano- " vich, of all Ruſſia ſole commander *."

His depoſition, however, and untimely fate, prevented the good effects of theſe favourable reſolutions; and the civil calamities which, ſubſequent to his aſſaſſination, deſolated Ruſſia, almoſt annihilated the Engliſh commerce. But theſe troubles were no ſooner terminated by the election of Michael, than Sir James Merricke, embaſſador from James I. to the court of Moſcow, obtained from the new tzar a freſh patent in favour of the company; which allowed them, as before, a free trade, without paying duties or cuſtoms, to Archangel †, and from thence to Kolmogori, Novogorod, Moſcow, and other parts of his dominions ‡.

* Purchas's Pilgrims, Vol. III. p. 760. † Ib. p. 738.

‡ As long as there was no town at the mouth of the Dvina, the merchandize was ſent to Kolmogori, and from thence into the interior parts of Ruſſia. Some time in the reign of Feodor Ivanovitch, the firſt foundations of the caſtle of Archangel were laid: it took its name from a monaſtery built in honour of the *Archangel* Michael. This ſpot ſoon increaſed to a town, and became the great ſtaple of the Engliſh trade. See S. R. G. VII. p. 470.

This

This beneficial commerce was, in 1648, ſuddenly annihilated by Alexèy Michaelovitch, who baniſhed the Engliſh merchants from all his dominions. The cauſe of this expulſion is generally imputed to the reſentment which the tzar conceived againſt the Engliſh for the execution of Charles I. *, with whom

* In the midſt of the Khitaigorod at Moſcow, there is an ancient gateway, which forms the entrance into the printing-office of the Holy Synod: it is of curious workmanſhip, ornamented with figures of the lion and unicorn groteſquely carved in wood. Theſe being the ſupporters of the Royal arms of England, authors have conjectured that this gateway was the entrance to the hotel, conſtructed by order of Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. for the reſidence of the Engliſh embaſſador; and that the tzar Alexèy was ſo offended at the execution of Charles I. that he converted the hotel into a printing-office. It is probable, indeed, from the figures of the lion and unicorn, that this gateway had ſome reference to the Engliſh, although it was not the embaſſador's hotel; that being ſituated near the church of St. Maximus, in another part of the Khitaigorod: but it evidently appears, from an inſcription over the gateway; that this building was not converted into a printing-office on account of the execution of Charles I. The inſcription denotes, that Michael Feodorovitch, and his ſon Alexèy, cauſed theſe apartments and this gate to be conſtructed in the printing-houſe, June 29th, 7152, or, according to our æra, 1645: a plain proof that the eſtabliſhment of the printing-houſe was prior, by at leaſt three years, to the execution of Charles I. and could have no reference to that event.

he was cloſely connected by leagues of amity and alliance; but in effect he aboliſhed the company's privileges in the year before that event; and his indignation againſt the Engliſh for their rebellion was only a political pretext; the real motive being derived from the offers made by the Dutch to pay duties of export and import, to the amount of 15 per cent. if they were indulged with the liberty of carrying on as free a trade as the Engliſh throughout his dominions. For not long afterwards, the tzar ſuffered William Prideaux, Cromwell's agent, to reſide at Archangel; and permitted the Engliſh to renew their commerce in that port upon the ſame footing with other foreigners *. It appears alſo, from Milton's and Thurloe's State Papers, that the tzar not only received ſeveral letters from Cromwell, and returned anſwers to them; but that, at the protector's requeſt, he even agreed to admit his embaſſador at Moſcow. In conſequence of this permiſſion, Richard Bradſhaw, Cromwell's reſident at Hamburgh, proceeded in his way to Moſcow as far as Mittau, where he was honourably entertained by the duke of Courland; from that town ſeveral diſpatches

* Thurloe, Vol. II. p. 558—562.

paſſed

paſſed between Bradſhaw and the Ruſſian chancellor, with reſpect to the ſuperſcription of the letter which the protector addreſſed to the tzar, and which did not confer upon that monarch all the titles which he required: this ſeems to have been merely a pretext, as Bradſhaw aſſerts, to prolong the time; and in effect he ſoon afterwards returned to Hamburgh without having accompliſhed his intended embaſſy to Moſcow *. Cromwell, however, ſeems to have gained a great point in opening the commerce of Archangel to the Engliſh, although he could not obtain ſuch honourable terms as they had formerly enjoyed; and although Alexèy could not be induced to grant unto the Engliſh a free trade into the interior parts of his dominions; yet this excluſion was not peculiar to them, for he equally prohibited all foreigners from carrying on any traffic, excepting at Archangel †.

Soon after the Reſtoration, Charles II. deſirous of obtaining a renewal of the company's privileges, as they exiſted before the abolition in 1648, diſpatched the earl of Car-

* See Milton's Works, p. 1657. Thurloe, Vol. III. p. 258, and VI. 408. 432. 439.

† Thurloe, Vol. II. p. 598.

liſle to Moſcow, who was ordered to repreſent, that "theſe very privileges were the "baſis and foundation upon which the amity "of the two crowns of England and Muſ-"covy were ſuperſtructed." The embaſſy failed of ſucceſs: the failure was imputed to the haughty deportment of the embaſſador, who expreſſed diſguſt at the bad accommodations in Ruſſia; did not pay ſufficient court to the miniſters and favourites of the tzar; tendered repeated remonſtrances in a manner totally repugnant to the Ruſſian cuſtom; and, under a falſe notion of maintaining the dignity of his ſovereign, objected to the Ruſſian ceremonial *. It is much to be queſtioned,

* The following quotation will diſplay the frivolous nature of the diſputes about precedency; and will ſhew, at the ſame time, the ill policy of the Engliſh embaſſador, who, as he wiſhed to gain a point of ſome conſequence, ought to have paid every poſſible deference to the prejudices and pride of the Ruſſians.

"A while after came Pronchiſſof, one of the tzar's "council, deputed as maſter of the ceremony to his ex-"cellence. And, on this occaſion, we had another ridi-"culous example of the pride and ruſticity of the Muſco-"vites, who were ſo quick and preciſe in anticipating the "prerogative of embaſſadors. Pronchiſſof being arrived "within ſome ſmall diſtance of the embaſſador's ſledge, "gave him to underſtand, that he was ſent to receive him "from

tioned, however, if the earl of Carliſle had acted a leſs impolitic part, whether the Ruſſian court would have renewed the charter of the company in its full extent, and particularly the exemption from duties of export and import; ſince the Dutch, who at that time carried on a very conſiderable traffic to Archangel, readily paid the cuſtoms. The only point which the earl of Carliſle could accompliſh, was a permiſſion that the Engliſh ſhould trade freely into the Ruſſian do-

" from the grand-duke his lord, and that he expected the " embaſſador ſhould firſt come out of his ſledge. But his " excellence ſignified to him, that he repreſented the per- " ſon of the king his maſter, and that, in that caſe, all " ſuch kind of reſpect was due to himſelf. Pronchiſſof, " however, continued immoveable in his ſledge as the " maſter of the ceremonies, and ſent back to the embaſ- " ſador, that he alſo was ſent from the tzar his maſter to " repreſent his perſon. This anſwer, how abſurd ſoever " it was, cauſed ſeveral ſmart replies, both on one ſide and " the other: till at laſt, the embaſſador, to prevent any " further delay in his entrance, condeſcended to this, that " both of them ſhould come out of their ſledges together. " But in this Pronchiſſof took occaſion to deceive his ex- " cellence, and falſify his word, hanging in the air betwixt " the arms of his ſervants, and but touching the earth with " his tiptoes, while the embaſſador came out freely." Carliſle's Embaſſies, p. 131.

minions,

minions, but remain ſubject to the duties of export and import. From that period the Britiſh commerce has ſuffered no interruption.

Archangel continued the ſole port for the exports and imports of Ruſſia, until, upon the building of Peterſburgh, Peter the Great aboliſhed its immunities; and removed the commerce of the White Sea to the havens of the Baltic *. The Britiſh merchants, who were highly favoured by that monarch, ſettled in the new metropolis, which ſuddenly became the principal mart for the Ruſſian trade. The privileges of the Britiſh factory eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia are confirmed by a ſolemn treaty of commerce and navigation, concluded in 1734 between George II. and the empreſs

* In 1752 Elizabeth again reſtored the ancient immunities of Archangel; and its preſent trade is not inconſiderable.

The port of Archangel ſupplies the government of Archangel, part of thoſe of Niſhnèi-Novogorod and Caſan, with European commodities; and draws in exchange from thoſe parts corn, flax, hemp, coarſe linen, cordage, ſails, maſts, tallow, which are moſtly conveyed by the Dvina: it forms alſo a principal communication with the northern and weſtern parts of Siberia, from whence the merchants procure furs, ſkins, and iron.

Anne;

Anne; and renewed, in 1766, between his preſent Majeſty and Catharine II *.

The whole trade of St. Peterſburgh in exports and imports for 1777, with the Engliſh and other nations, was,

In exports - -	£. 2,400,000	£. 4,000,000 0
Imports - - -	1,600,000	
Balance in favour of Ruſſia - -	800,000	

The Britiſh ſhare in this trade is

† In the exports about - -	£. 1,508,782 6	£. 1,932,715 1
Imports - -	423,942 12	
Gain - -	1,084,839 14	

Conſequently, the trade with all other nations (the Ruſſian ſubjects included) is,

In the exports -	£. 891,227 11	£. 2,067,284 19
Imports - -	1,176,057 8	
Loſs - -	284,829 17	

From hence it is evident Ruſſia gains annually by her trade

with the Britiſh ſubjects about -	£. 1,084,829 17
And that ſhe loſes by her trade with all other nations - -	284,829 17
Remains annually a clear gain of about	800,000 0

But ſhould the contraband traffic (in which the value of the imports far exceeds that of the exports, and in which the Britiſh have little or no concern) be included, it will conſiderably diminiſh the balance of theſe commercial profits as juſt ſtated.

* The reader will find the firſt treaty of 1734 in Rouſſet's Supplement to Dumont's Corps Diplomatique, vol. III. p. 495; and the laſt, of 1766, in a Collection of Treaties between Great Britain and other Powers, vol. II. p. 309—327.

† See Britiſh Exports and Imports, Appendix, N° 2,

According

According to this ſtatement, half the trade of St. Peterſburgh is in the hands of the Engliſh; but as their exports and imports in 1777 exceeded thoſe of the preceding or ſubſequent years, this eſtimate may be conſidered as too highly rated: we may fairly however allow, upon the moſt moderate computation, that a third of this commerce is carried on by our factory.

The average number of merchant ſhips, which annually arrive from England at the port of Cronſtadt, with goods laden for Peterſburgh, may be collected from the following table:

Years.	Ships.	Years.	Ships.	Years.	Ships.	Years.	Ships.
1753	149	1758	161	1763	149	1773	319
1754	236	1759	206	1767	200	1774	318
1755	160	1760	137	1768	237	1776	320
1756	186	1761	130	1769	322	1777	366
1757	129	1762	153	1770	306	1778	252

The general ſtate of the trade of St. Peterſburgh in 1778 was,

In exports	£. 2,042,097	8
Imports	1,318,428	16
	3,360,526	4

In the ſame year the following number of veſſels arrived at Cronſtadt:

Engliſh	252	Dutch	147	Hamburgh	2
French*	1	Daniſh	39	Stralſund	1
Spaniſh	6	Pruſſian	26	Bremen	3
Ruſſian	12	Lubeck	38		
Portugueſe	2	Roſtock	29	Total	607
Swediſh	47	Dantzick	2		

Beſide the metropolis, the Ruſſian trade in the Baltic is carried on at Riga, Revel, Nar-

* The French exports and imports are, in time of war, moſtly conveyed in Dutch bottoms, which is the reaſon why, in 1778, but one French veſſel arrived at Cronſtadt, although their exports and imports for that year amounted to £. 148,753.

va,

va *, and Wiburgh. From Riga a conſiderable quantity of corn is exported by the Engliſh, Swedes, and Dutch, which is ſent down the Duna from the provinces of Pleſcof, Smolenſko, and Novogorod: a few maſts are alſo ſhipped from the ſame port. The other exports from this, and the above-mentioned maritime towns, are ſimilar to thoſe of Peterſburgh.

* The exports from Revel in 1780 amounted to £. 30,283; the imports to £. 94,648. Jour. Pet. for 1781.

In the ſame year 71 ſhips arrived at Narva, of which 33 were Dutch, 9 Engliſh, 11 Daniſh, 8 Swediſh, and 2 from Lubeck. Ibid.

At Riga 758 ſhips arrived in 1782. See Hamb. Pol. Journ. for 1782. P. II. p. 480.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Riſe, progreſs, and termination of the Engliſh *trade on the* Caſpian Sea.—*Commerce of the* Ruſſians *in the ſame quarter.—Deſcription of the principal ports of the* Caſpian, *divided into* Ruſſian, Perſian, *and* Tartar.—*General exports and imports.—Average value of the trade.—Commerce with the* Bucharians *and* Chineſe.

SO early as the 14th century the Venetians and Genoeſe drew, by means of the Caſpian, through Aſtracan to their ſettlements at Azof * and Caffa, the Indian, Perſian, and Arabian merchandize, with which they thus furniſhed the ſouth of Europe: the northern part of this continent was ſupplied likewiſe, through Aſtracan, with the ſame Aſiatic goods, by the Ruſſian merchants of Ladoga upon the Volkof, who ſent them to their principal

* See Guldenſtaedt's Treatiſe Von den Hafen am Caſpiſchen Meere, in Journ. St. Pet. for 1777.

The Indian goods were brought, for the moſt part, through Perſia, acroſs the Caſpian to Aſtracan, from thence up the Volga, then by land to the Don, and down that river to Azof.

ſtorehouſe

10 20 30 40 50 60
English Miles 69 to a Degree.
10 20 30 40
Madshar
45
Cabarda
Kuma R.
Mangushlak
CABARDA
Malok
Terek R.
Kiedak R.
Kuban R.
Caucasus
MAJOR
Alexander B.
Terki
Ossetia
Sunshar R.
Alkasai R.
Audria
Mt. Caucasus
Lesgeestan
Mt. Opis
Larku
IMERETIA
Kuteti
Gori
Zaghen
Tori
KAKHETIA
Derbent
Samur R.
Caraboug B.
GEORGIA
Tefflis
Akalzike
Nieszabad
Kuru
Koor R.
Belnisi
Kosak
Shamakée
SHIRVAN
Sevrni
Canja
Baku
Balkan Bay
Erivan
ARMENIA
Berdar
Koor R.
40
Garusha
Ogurcha
Naksuvan
Araxes R.
Capan
Sallian
Diadin
Koor R.
Zaud
Argish
Astabad
Ienipenm
Astara
Marand
Findrali
Van
Van L.
Selmas
Tabris
Ardebil
Ashor
CASPIAN SEA
TURCOMAN

ſtorehouſe at Wiſby, an Hanſeatic town in the Iſle of Gothland. The devaſtation occaſioned by the wars of Tamerlane, about the end of the 14th century, turned this trade from Aſtracan to Smyrna and Aleppo. The commerce of Arabia, more commodious for thoſe ports, was never brought back to Aſtracan; but part of the Perſian traffic was afterwards reſtored to its old channel.

Before the conqueſt of Caſan and Aſtracan, and while theſe provinces were under the government of the Tartars; the camp, or head quarters of the khan, was a mart for the Ruſſian and Perſian merchants. But as this camp, according to the cuſtom of the roving Tartars, was frequently changed, Aſtracan and Terki * became at length the two principal places of reſort. The commerce however, impeded and frequently interrupted by the numerous banditti, was precarious; until by the conqueſt of Caſan and Aſtracan Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. opened a ready communication between Moſcow and the Caſpian Sea; and having garriſoned Aſtracan with troops, rendered it a ren-

* Terki was ſituated near the river Terek, upon the weſtern ſhore of the Caſpian: there are no traces of it now remaining, as the ſpot upon which it ſtood is covered with the ſea.

dezvous

dezvous for the merchants trading to theſe parts, and the chief depoſitory of their ſeveral commodities. This conqueſt being completed in the year 1554, ſoon after the diſcovery of Archangel, the Engliſh, who had ſettled a regular factory at Moſcow, obtained the tzar's permiſſion to paſs through his dominions into Perſia, and to carry on an excluſive trade over the Caſpian.

Jenkinſon was the firſt Engliſhman who navigated that ſea. In 1558 he landed at Manguſhlak upon the Eaſtern ſhore, paſſed by land through the country of the Turkoman Tartars to Boghara, capital of Great Bucharia, and returned to Moſcow the following year. In 1561 he again ſailed over the Caſpian; and, proceeding to the coaſt of Shirvan, went by land to Caſbin, the reſidence of the ſophy; from whom he obtained for the Engliſh a permiſſion of trading into Perſia. Several merchants followed his example. The laſt expedition was made, in 1597, by Chriſtopher Burroughs; whoſe ſhip being, in its return, hemmed in by the ice in the mouth of the Volga, and ſhattered to pieces, he and his crew eſcaped with difficulty, and arrived at Aſtracan after many

dangers *. During theſe expeditions the traffic was chiefly carried on to the ports of Tumen, Derbent, Baku, and the coaſts of Ghilan.

The diſaſters which attended the laſt voyage of Burroughs, the number of banditti who frequented the ſhores of the Caſpian, and the wars between the Turks and Perſians, obſtructed the infant commerce; and no Engliſh veſſel appeared upon this ſea for above a century and an half. At length, in 1741, the Britiſh merchants of St. Peterſburgh, at the perſuaſion of captain Elton, an Engliſhman in the Ruſſian ſervice, renewed their commerce upon the Caſpian; and eſtabliſhed a factory at Reſhd in the province of Ghilan. Some diſputes unfortunately ariſing, as well between the Engliſh themſelves, as between the Ruſſians and captain Elton; the latter entered into the ſervice of Kouli Khan, and aſſiſted the ſophy in conſtructing ſome veſſels upon the Caſpian Sea. This circumſtance gave umbrage to the court of Peterſburgh; and Elizabeth, in 1746, withdrew the permiſſion which ſhe had granted to the Engliſh merchants, of paſſing through her dominions for the Caſpian commerce. Upon

* See Hackluyt, p. 324—430. S. R. G. VIII. 426—473.

the death of Nadir Shah in 1747, who, in conſequence of captain Elton's influence, had permitted the Engliſh to trade to Perſia, their factory was pillaged by one of the pretenders to the throne of that kingdom, and their commerce in thoſe parts was totally annihilated *.

Having thus ſketched the origin and progreſs of the Engliſh commerce upon the Caſpian, I ſhall now conſider that of the Ruſſians, who purſued with perſeverance the track which our merchants had opened for them: their trade over the Caſpian Sea was not inconſiderable, and would have been puſhed ſtill further, if the caravans, in their journey to and from Aſtracan, had not been frequently pillaged by the roving Coſſacs †. The commercial intercourſe between Perſia and Ruſſia was ſtill further enlarged and extended under Boris Godunof ‡, who formed an alliance with the ſophy Shah-Abbas the Great, which would have been extremely ad-

* See Hanway's Britiſh trade over the Caſpian Sea, in his Travels, Vols. I. and II.; and Chap. XXXIII. in the ſecond volume of Cooke's Travels through the Ruſſian Empire to Perſia. Both theſe accounts, however contradictory to each other, ſufficiently prove the unfortunate miſunderſtandings which had ariſen between the Engliſh who engaged in this trade.

† S. R. G. VII. 489. ‡ Ib. p. 490.

vantageous

vantageous if the civil wars had not taken place: and though, under Michael Feodorovitch, theſe commotions ſubſided, and the commerce was renewed; yet it was ſo frequently interrupted by the Tartar banditti and pirates, as to become exceedingly precarious.

Alexèy Michaelovitch having curbed the Coſſacs, and rendered the roads more ſecure, Aſtracan became again the center of the Perſian trade; to which place merchants from Bucharia, Crim Tartary, Armenia, Perſia, and even India, reſorted. That ſovereign turned his attention to the commerce of the Caſpian; and as the veſſels of the Ruſſians were rudely framed, without decks, and of courſe expoſed to conſtant ſhipwrecks *, he drew from Amſterdam ſeveral ſhip-builders, for the purpoſe of conſtructing veſſels more calculated to weather the ſtorms of this ſea: but theſe deſigns were fruſtrated by the rebel- 1669.
lion of the Coſſacs of the Don, under the command of Stenko Raſin †. The trade of Ruſſia in thoſe parts was ſo entirely anni- 1671.

* S. R. G. VII. p. 409.

† Buſching, IX. 80—88. For an account of Stenko Raſin, ſee Schmidt, Ruſſ. Geſ. Vol. II. p. 32. Motley's Hiſtory of Catharine, Vol. I. p. 227.

hilated by the devaſtations of theſe Coſſacs; that, upon the quelling of the revolt, and the puniſhment of their leader, the greateſt part of it fell almoſt entirely into the hands of the Armenian merchants eſtabliſhed in Aſtracan, who ſettled factories both in the Ruſſian and Perſian territories *.

During this whole period the Ruſſian and Armenian traders ſeem to have penetrated no further than Niezabad, a port between Derbent and Baku; and their chief ſettlement was at Shamakee, capital of Shirvan, until 1711, when that town was taken by the Leſgees, and their factory pillaged and deſtroyed.

Towards the latter end of Peter's reign, this commerce was again renewed on the following occaſion: that monarch having marched a conſiderable army into Perſia, took poſſeſſion of the provinces of Dageſtan, Shirvan, Ghilan, and Maſanderan, a tract of country which compriſes all the Eaſtern and Southern coaſts of the Caſpian; and theſe provinces were formally ceded to Ruſſia in 1723. Soon after this ceſſion, the emperor having obtained all the neceſſary information relating to the

* S. R. G. VII. p. 525.

ports

ports of that ſea, and the productions of the neighbouring countries, eſtabliſhed a Ruſſian company trading to the Caſpian: the low ſtate of which will ſufficiently appear from this circumſtance, that its whole capital conſiſted only of 400 ſhares, of the value of £. 30 each. The chief ſettlements were formed at Aſtracan and Kiſlar, from which places the whole traffic was carried on by ſea.

The poſſeſſion of theſe diſtant provinces proved ſo expenſive, and of ſuch little advantage to the Ruſſians; that the empreſs Anne was induced, in 1732 and 1735, to reſtore them to the ſophy * upon the following conditions: that the Ruſſian merchants ſhould have the liberty of trading to all the havens of the Caſpian without paying any duty; that they ſhould be allowed to build houſes and magazines wherever it was moſt convenient; that they ſhould be in no wiſe ſubject to the laws of the country; and that all goods ſaved from the wrecks of their veſſels ſhould be delivered to the Ruſſians †. The privileges of this company were confirmed by Anne and Elizabeth; but the com-

* S. R. G. I. p. 154, &c.

† Guldenſtaedt.

merce languiſhed and was inconſiderable until the reign of the preſent empreſs, who, in 1762, aboliſhed this excluſive right, and permitted all her ſubjects to trade to Perſia; prohibiting, on account of the numerous banditti who infeſt the roads, the inland traffic from Kiſlar, and the other Caſpian ports to Shamakee, where the factory was formerly eſtabliſhed. Two Ruſſian conſuls reſide at Baku and Einzellee *. Theſe regulations, however productive of general advantage to the commerce, cannot prevent the contraband trade which is carried on at Shamakee, and the other inland towns of Perſia, by the Armenian merchants; who, from the knowledge of the country and the language, gain ready admiſſion, and underſell the Ruſſians.

Aſtracan, ſituated upon an iſland in one of the branches of the Volga, may be conſidered as the great ſtaple of the Caſpian commerce; and, by means of that river, is readily ſupplied with European merchandize from the ports of the Baltic †. Although Aſtracan is only in the 47th degree of latitude, yet the cold is extremely intenſe in winter;

* Guldenſtaedt, p. 248.

† Hanway, p. 141.

and

and for two months the Volga is generally frozen ſo hard as to be paſſed over by heavy-laden ſledges *. Large tracts of foreſt upon the banks of that river, in the province of Caſan, furniſh ſufficient oak and timber for the conſtruction of veſſels for the Caſpian ſea.

The Caſpian is about 680 miles in length, reckoning from Gurief to Medſhetiſar; and in no part more than 260 miles in breadth. It has no tide; and, on account of its frequent ſhoals, is navigable only by veſſels drawing from 9 to 10 feet water: it has ſtrong currents; and, like all inland ſeas, is ſubject to violent ſtorms †, which the Ruſſian veſſels, wretchedly conſtructed, weather with difficulty. Its waters are brackiſh. The fiſhery of the Caſpian deſerves to be mentioned, becauſe it is a nurſery for ſailors. The Uralian Coſſacs enjoy the right of fiſhing upon the coaſt 47 miles on each ſide of the river Ural; and the inhabitants of Aſtracan poſſeſs the excluſive privilege upon the remaining ſhores belonging to Ruſſia. The roe of ſturgeons and beluga ſupply large quantities of caviare;

* Gmelin, Vol. II. p. 84.

† Hanway, Vol. I. p. 393.

and the fiſh, which are chiefly ſalted and dried, form a conſiderable article of conſumption in the Ruſſian empire. The Caſpian abounds with ſea-dogs, which are hunted and caught in great numbers *.

We ſhall be able to aſcertain with tolerable exactneſs the preſent ſtate of the commerce in the Caſpian ſea, by conſidering the principal havens, and the imports and exports.

The coaſts of the Caſpian being in the poſſeſſion of the Ruſſians, Perſians, and Tartars, the ports may be divided into,

I. Ruſſian. II. Perſian. III. Tartar.

I. The Ruſſian ports and trading places upon the Caſpian are, 1. Gurief; 2. Kiſlar.

1. Gurief is ſituated upon the mouth of the Yaik or Ural, at a little diſtance from a bay of the Caſpian. It is a ſmall, but ſtrong fortreſs, which guards the frontiers of the Ruſſian empire towards the territory of the Kirghees Tartars. The place contains ſcarcely an hundred houſes; and, except the garriſon, has no inhabitants but a few merchants from Aſtracan, who drive an inconſiderable trade

* Journ. St. Pet. p. 253; S. R. G. VII. p. 525. For a liſt of the fiſh in the Caſpian, ſee Gmelin, Vol. II. p. 246.

with

with the neighbouring Tartars *. 2. The fortreſs of Kiſlar ſtands near the Eaſtern coaſt, and covers the frontiers towards the limits of Perſia. Veſſels bound for this place formerly entered the Southern branch of the Terek; but as the mouths of that river are now choaked up, the merchandize is landed in a ſmall bay about the diſtance of 34 miles from the fortreſs. Kiſlar draws from Aſtracan the European commodities neceſſary for the Perſian traffic, and alſo a large quantity of corn and proviſion for the Ruſſian colonies upon the Terek, and for the inhabitants of the neighbouring chain of Mount Caucaſus. Beſide the goods which are diſpoſed of at Kiſlar, and ſent from thence to the Perſian ports, the inhabitants carry on a contraband trade to Shamakee, Derbent, and even Tiflis in Georgia; which is exceedingly precarious from the numerous banditti who pillage the caravans.

II. Before I enumerate the principal Perſian havens, it would be neceſſary to acquaint the reader to whom belong the provinces of Shirvan, Ghilan, Maſanderan, and Aſtrabad, in which countries the ports reſorted to by

* Pallas Reiſe, I. 424, &c.

the

the Ruſſians are ſituated; if, in the preſent unſettled ſtate of Perſia, and the civil wars which continue to haraſs that divided empire, it were poſſible to aſcertain that point *. In general, the above-mentioned provinces are governed by their own khans; who, though tributary to the ſophy, render themſelves occaſionally independent whenever a favourable opportunity offers: continually at variance, and frequently at war with each other, their governments are the ſeat of almoſt perpetual hoſtility, rapine, and devaſtation. Meanwhile, the trade flouriſhes or diminiſhes in propor-

* On the aſſaſſination of Nadir Shah, in 1747, various competitors preſented themſelves to fill the vacant throne; and in leſs than two years eight ſovereigns had reigned, been depoſed, or aſſaſſinated; when Kerim Khan, one of Nadir's generals, ſubdued all his rivals, and made himſelf maſter of all Perſia. He reigned thirty years, and fixed his reſidence in his favourite city of Shirauz. On his death, in 1779, Perſia was again expoſed to all the horrors of a diſputed ſucceſſion, and divided between the two principal competitors, Akau Mahomed Khan, a Perſian of high diſtinction, who was caſtrated in his infancy by order of Nadir Shah, and who, like Narſes, poſſeſſed great civil and military talents, was, in 1788, maſter of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Iſpahan and Tauris. Jaafar Khan, nephew of Kerim Khan, was at that period ſovereign of Shirauz, the capital, and of the Southern provinces.—Franklin's Tour from Bengal to Perſia, p. 278—351.

tion

tion as the exactions of the ſovereigns are more or leſs frequent and exorbitant.

The Perſian havens are as follow:

1. Derbent is the worſt port in the Caſpian, if it can be called a port, where veſſels can ſeldom approach the ſhore, on account of ſands and ſhoals, but are generally obliged to lie at anchor at the diſtance of at leaſt three quarters of a mile: from this circumſtance, joined to the inconſiderable degree of commerce carried on with the inhabitants, it is at preſent but little frequented. Derbent *, which ſtands in the province of Shirvan, is a Perſian fortreſs, ſurrounded by high brick walls: the inhabitants are chiefly Perſians, Tartars, and a few Armenians. Two or three

* "This city of Derbent is an antient towne, having "an olde caſtle therein, ſituated upon an hill called Caſtow, "builded all of free-ſtone, much after our building, the "walles very high and thicke, and was firſt erected by king "Alexander the Great, when he warred againſt the Per- "ſians and Medians, and then hee made a wall of a "woonderfull height and thickneſſe, extending from the "ſame city to the Georgians, yea, unto the principal city "thereof, named Tewfliſh; which wall, though it be now "raſed, or otherwiſe decayed, yet the foundation remaineth, "and the wall was made to the intent that the inhabitants "of that country, then newly conquered by the ſaid Alex- "ander, ſhould not lightly flee, nor his enemies eaſily in- "vade." Hackluyt, Vol. I. p. 345.

Ruſſian ſhips are annually bound for Derbent; they are uſually laden with oats and rye; and they carry iron, ſteel, and lead for the Leſgees and other Tartar nations, who inhabit the Eaſtern chain of the Caucaſus. The neighbourhood of Derbent produces ſome corn; but not ſufficient for the conſumption of the place. 2. Nieſovaia Priſtan, or Niezabad, muſt be mentioned, becauſe it was formerly the port moſt frequented by the Ruſſians; this place was chiefly viſited by the merchants of Shamakee, who then ſupplied the province of Shirvan with European commodities: near the harbour are ſeveral wretched villages. 3. Baku is eſteemed the moſt commodious haven in this ſea, as veſſels may there ride ſecurely at anchor in ſeven fathom water; but the number of ſhoals, iſlands, and ſand-banks, render the entrance in ſome places extremely difficult and dangerous, particularly to the Ruſſians, who are not very expert ſailors. Baku is a fortreſs ſurrounded with high brick walls: its inhabitants, like thoſe of Derbent, are Perſians, Tartars, and a few Armenian merchants. The principal articles of exportation which ſupport the trade of this place are naphta, and the fineſt rock ſalt, of both which there are mines on the eaſt ſide of the bay. The inhabitants

bitants cultivate ſaffron and the cotton tree, but not to any conſiderable advantage. The trade of Baku, though more valuable than that of Derbent, is ſtill inconſiderable; and chiefly carried on with Shamakee, from whence it draws raw ſilk and ſilken ſtuffs. A Ruſſian conſul is reſident at this place. In 1777, Baku * belonged to Melik-Mehmed, who was tributary to Feth Ali, khan of Kuba: the latter poſſeſſed the whole province of Shirvan, and was the moſt powerful prince, next to the khan of Ghilan, upon the coaſt of the Caſpian. Before we quit the province of Shirvan; it may be not improper to mention its capital, the inland town of Shamakee, which is only 66 miles from Baku, and ſupplies that port with raw ſilk and ſilken ſtuffs. It owed its former commercial importance to the ſilk which is cultivated in the neighbouring diſtrict: this rich production ſtill preſerves the town from ruin; though its traffic is greatly reduced by the exorbitant exactions of the khan of Kuba. Formerly the Ruſſians had a factory at this place; and it was alſo crowded with Turkiſh and Greek merchants; but at preſent there are only a few Armenian and In-

* Gmelin, Vol. III. p. 52, &c. Guldenſtaedt.

dian

dian traders. The inhabitants manufacture ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, but far inferior to thoſe made at this place in the beginning of the preſent century. The ſilk of this province is exported into the interior part of Perſia, Turkey, Georgia, and Ruſſia. Shamakee ſtill ſupplies part of Georgia, and the inhabitants of the Eaſtern chain of Mount Caucaſus, with European commodities, principally by means of the traffic with Baku, and the contraband trade with the Armenians and Ruſſians *. Sallian being no longer reſorted to on account of the ſhoals and rocks, I haſten to, 4. Einzellee, which, though a wretched village, is the moſt frequented for the Perſian commerce: formerly the veſſels entered through the channel into a bay; but, as this bay is choaked up, they are obliged to lie at anchor in the road. Einzellee is ſituated on the ſouth-weſtern coaſt, a few miles north of Reſhd, capital of the province of Ghilan: it conſiſts of two parts, Old and New Einzellee; the former is inhabited by the Perſians and Armenians, under the juriſdiction of the ſophy; the latter, by the Ruſſian merchants, and thoſe Armenians who are ſubject to the empreſs: a garriſon of thirty

* Gmelin, Vol. III. p. 60, &c.

Ruſſian

Ruſſian ſoldiers is there ſtationed under the command of the conſul. It contains a Ruſſian and Armenian church, and about 300 houſes, which are moſtly built with reed. The refuſe only of the Perſian and European commodities is expoſed to ſale at Einzellee; the great mart being at Reſhd, where the Ruſſians have erected booths; and to which place a conflux of merchants from Tauris, the principal cities of Perſia, Armenia, and even Turkey, reſort, in order to purchaſe the raw ſilk and manufactures of Ghilan. Hence the Ruſſians diſpoſe of their European commodities to conſiderable advantage; and obtain in return the productions of this rich province. The manufactures * and ſilk of Ghilan, which is eſteemed the beſt in Perſia, have been in ſuch repute for theſe laſt fifty years, that Reſhd is become one of the firſt commercial towns in this part of Aſia. The fineſt ſort is uſually white, and is chiefly ſent into the interior cities of Perſia, or ſold to the Turks. The inferior kind is yellow, and is chiefly diſpoſed of to the Ruſſians. There is ſuch a conſtant

* See, in Gmelin, Vol. III. p. 415, a liſt of the manufactures of Ghilan.

demand

demand for the ſilk of Ghilan *, that the price riſes every year. Reſhd ſupplies the bordering provinces of Perſia, and the independent neighbouring ſtates as far as Georgia, with European merchandize, excepting the goods which are tranſported immediately from Aſtracan, through Kiſlar and Moſtok, to the neareſt parts of Georgia, and of the neighbouring mountains; and thoſe which are ſent from Shamakee, to the Leſgees Tartars, and other independent tribes †. 5. Farabat, and, 6. Medſhetiſar, are ſituated upon the ſouthern coaſt, in the province of Maſanderan; they are both ſmall villages; of which the latter is the moſt commercial, from its vicinity to Balfruſch, capital of the province, where the Ruſſians and Armenians carry their merchandize: the traffic, however, is much leſs conſiderable than it was formerly; a circumſtance owing to the impoſitions of the khan of Maſanderan. The chief productions of this country are ſilk, far inferior to that of Ghilan; and rice and cotton, of both which ar-

* For an account of the ſilk of Ghilan, ſee Gmelin, Vol. III. p. 412. Hanway, Vol. II. p. 16. S. R. G. VII. p. 515.

† Gmelin, Vol. III. p. 414.

ticles

ticles there is a large exportation. Merchants from Kaſkan, Iſpahan, Schiraſs, Khoraſan, &c. reſort to Balfruſch; and bring for ſale the Perſian and Indian commodities *. 7. The bay of Aſtrabad, where the Ruſſians land and proceed to the capital of that name: the productions of this province, and its exports and imports, are nearly ſimilar to thoſe of Maſanderan. The commerce of Aſtrabad is chiefly with Candahar.

III. The Tartar havens are, 1. The Bay of Balkan; and, 2. Manguſhlak, both of which, but particularly the latter, afford a ſecure harbour. 1. The Ruſſians frequent the iſlands in the bay of Balkan; inhabited chiefly by pirates of the race of Turkoman Tartars: theſe iſlands produce rice and cotton, and one of them, called Napthonia, abounds in naphta. This traffic might be increaſed to the advantage of Ruſſia; as it would be far more commodious to trade with the Tartars of Khiva and Bucharia from theſe parts, than from Orenburgh, through the country of the warlike and independent Kirghees. 2. The commerce of Manguſhlak is by far the moſt conſiderable: the neighbouring Tartars bring to

* Gmelin, Vol. III. p. 459.

this place the productions of their own country, and even of Bucharia, ſuch as cotton, yarn, and ſtuffs, furs and ſkins, and rhubarb *.

The principal commodities exported from Aſtracan to the ports of the Caſpian ſea, are cloths, chiefly Engliſh, Dutch, French, and Sileſian; vitriol, ſoap, allum, ſugar, Ruſſia leather, needles, coarſe linen manufactured in Ruſſia, velvets, glaſs ware, and looking-glaſſes, writing paper, a few furs and ſkins, a ſmall quantity of tea, proviſions, chiefly corn and butter, wine, brandy, wooden furniture, ſea-horſe teeth, alſo iron, braſs, tin, lead, hard-ware, watches, &c. &c. In 1775, the value of the cloths exported amounted to £. 52,600; the cochineal to £. 45,600; and the indigo to £. 7000.

Imports. Raw and manufactured ſilks, but chiefly the former, from the provinces of Shirvan and Ghilan; which article, in 1775, amounted to £. 43,800. Bucharian lamb-ſkins, rice, dried fruit, ſpices and drugs, ſaffron, ſalt, ſulphur, and naphta. The Indians and merchants of Khiva bring occaſionally to Aſtracan gold and ſilver in bars, gold-duſt, precious ſtones, and pearls.

The trade of the Caſpian ſea had conſiderably declined before the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs: by the abolition of monopolies, and by various other uſeful regulations, it has lately increaſed to ſuch a degree; that within the ſpace of fifteen years the average ſum of the exports and imports has been nearly tripled, as will appear from comparing the following tables.

* Guldenſtaedt, p. 265—267.

1760,

			Total exports and imports.
1760,	Exports	£. 36,100	£. 78,200
	Imports	42,100	
Balance againſt Ruſſia	-	6,000	
1768,	Exports	£. 87,700	£. 151,400
	Imports	63,700	
Balance in favour of Ruſſia		24,000	
1775,	Exports	£. 125,400	£. 189,520
	Imports	64,120	
Balance in favour of Ruſſia		61,280	
Traffic with Georgia and the natives of Caucaſus - - - -			£. 10,000
Total in 1775 - - - -			£. 199,520

The contraband trade is not included in this calculation *.

Commerce with the Bucharians and Chineſe.

Under the commerce with the Bucharians † I comprize that which the Ruſſians carry on

* The reader who wiſhes to trace the riſe, progreſs, and preſent ſtate of the commerce upon the Caſpian ſea, muſt conſult and compare Hackluyt's Collection of Voyages, Vol. I. p. 324 to 431; Hanway's Britiſh Trade of the Caſpian Sea; Cooke's Travels; S. R. G. VII. 103—546; Gmelin's Reiſe, Vol. III.; and Guldenſtaedt's Treatiſe mentioned above.

† Having before mentioned the commerce with the Bucharians upon the Eaſtern coaſts of the Caſpian, it is needleſs to enter upon any further detail of it in this place.

with the Calmucs, and other Tartar nations beyond the frontiers of Siberia; becauſe the latter is of ſuch little importance as ſcarcely to deſerve a ſeparate article.

The Bucharians, who inhabit the ſouth-weſtern part of Independent Tartary, are a very commercial people: their caravans travel through the whole continent of Aſia *, and traffic with Thibet and China, India, Perſia, and Ruſſia. This empire contains ſeveral colonies of the Bucharians, who are ſettled in many large towns of the ſouthern provinces; and who maintain a conſtant communication with the merchants of their own country. Their principal marts are Tomſk, Kiacta, and Orenburgh; the latter of which is the moſt conſiderable, and chiefly trades with Kaſkar, Taſhkent, and Khiva †. Their caravans, in their way to theſe towns, are expoſed to pillage from the Kirgees Tartars, through whoſe country they are obliged to paſs. Their imports are gold and ſilver, chiefly in Perſian coins and Indian rupees, gold-duſt ‡, precious

* S. R. G. VII. p. 7.

† Rytſkof Orenb. Top. vol. I. p. 263.

‡ This gold-duſt is found in the ſand of the rivers of Bucharia. The procuring of this commodity was the principal inducement to the firſt expeditions of the Engliſh merchants

cious ſtones, particularly rubies, lapis-lazuli, ſpun and raw cotton, cotton ſtuffs in great abundance, both Indian and Bucharian, half-ſilks, unprepared nitre, native ſal-ammoniac, lamb-ſkins, raw ſilk in ſmall quantities, and rhubarb, large herds of ſheep and horſes *. Exports: Cloth, Ruſſian leather, beads and trinkets, hard-ware, indigo, cochineal, &c.

The Chineſe trade is by far the moſt important part of its Aſiatic commerce, and is now carried on at Kiacta, ſituated upon the frontiers of the Chineſe and Ruſſian empires. But having in a former publication † given a circumſtantial account of this commerce, it will be ſufficient to obſerve in this place, that in 1777, the total ſum of importation and exportation, as entered at the cuſtom-

merchants over the Caſpian into Bucharia, which are related in Hackluyt's Collection. Peter the Great ſent ſeveral Ruſſian merchants into the country for the ſame purpoſe. See S. R. G. IV. p. 183, &c. Rytſkof, vol. I. p. 263. Ruſſia Illuſtrata, vol. II. p. 141.

* Pallas Reiſe, vol. I. p. 232, &c. The ſheep and horſes are brought for ſale by the Kirgees Tartars. Mr. Pallas ſays, that above 60,000 ſheep, and 10,000 horſes, are yearly ſold at Orenburgh, p. 234.

† See an account of the tranſactions and commerce between Ruſſia and China, in Ruſſian Diſcoveries, Book III. Chap. II.—V.

houſe, amounted to £. 573,666. 15s.; but if we include the contraband trade, which is very conſiderable, and make an allowance for the deficiencies of the above-mentioned year, which was not ſo favourable as the preceding ones, we may fairly eſtimate the groſs amount of the average trade to China, in exports and imports, at near £. 800,000 ſterling.

CHAP.

CHAP. V.

On the commerce of the Black Sea.—*Havens.—Exports and imports.—Ports and territory ceded by the* Turks *to* Ruſſia.—Zaporogian *Coſſacs.—Abolition of their government.—Productions of the Southern provinces of* Ruſſia.—*Navigation of the* Don *and* Dnieper.—*Attempts of the* Ruſſians *to proſecute the commerce through the* Dardanelles *to the* Mediterranean.—*Frequent interruptions and precarious ſtate of that trade.*

PETER the Great was the firſt ſovereign of this empire who attempted to open a commerce through the Sea of Azof and the Euxine, and to export, by that channel, the productions of Southern Ruſſia. By his victories over the Turks, the poſſeſſion of Azof, and the conſtruction of Taganroc, he ſeemed on the eve of realizing this favourite project; but all his vaſt ſchemes were baffled by the unſucceſsful campaign of 1711, which terminated in the peace of Pruth: a peace purchaſed by the ceſſion of Azof and Taganroc, and by relinquiſhing the commerce of the

Euxine. Since that period the Turks have jealouſly excluded the Ruſſians from all ſhare in the navigation of their ſeas; until the preſent empreſs finiſhed a ſucceſsful war againſt the Porte by the glorious peace of 1774. By this peace Ruſſia obtained a free navigation in all the Turkiſh ſeas; a right of paſſing through the Dardanelles; all the commercial immunities granted to the moſt favoured nations in amity with the Porte; the poſſeſſion of Azof and Taganroc; the three fortreſſes of Kinburn, Kertſh, and Yenikalè; and a large diſtrict between the Bog and the Dnieper.

Many ſpeculations have been entertained concerning the extent and value of the traffic which Ruſſia is likely to eſtabliſh in the Black Sea; and the revolution which it may effect in the commerce of Europe, by transferring part of the Baltic trade to the ports of the Mediterranean. In conſequence of this change, it is aſſerted, the ſouthern provinces of this empire will find a vent to export their ſuperfluous productions; the Ruſſian veſſels will open a profitable trade with Crim Tartary, with the Auſtrian provinces at Kilia-Nova, with the Turks at Conſtantinople, with the Greeks in the Levant; the iron of Siberia, the corn, hemp, and flax of the Ukraine, and

the

the contiguous provinces, will be ſent from the havens of the Black Sea, through the Dardanelles, to ſupply the ports of the Mediterranean; and thus France and Spain will be furniſhed with naval ſtores by a cheaper and more expeditious navigation than through the Baltic and the Northern Ocean. As the completion of this great and extenſive project can only be the work of time, and depends on a variety of contingencies, we cannot pretend to form any abſolute deciſion upon the probability of its failure or ſucceſs; but a conſiderable light may be thrown on this intricate ſubject by an attention to the following objects of inquiry *,

I. The traffic upon the Turkiſh Seas before the peace, with an account of their havens and exports. II. The ports and territory ceded to Ruſſia, and the new towns ſince conſtructed by the empreſs. III. The productions of the Southern Ruſſian provinces, and the navigation of the rivers Don and Dnieper. IV. The progreſs hitherto made by the Ruſſians to eſtabliſh an intercourſe between the

* In this inquiry I have principally followed Guldenſtaedt's Eſſay Von der Hafen am Azowſchen Schwartzen and Weiſſen Meere, in Journ. St. Pet. for 1776.

Black

Black Sea, through the Dardanelles, with the ports of the Mediterranean.

I. The traffic upon the Turkiſh Seas previous to the peace of 1774, and their havens and exports. This traffic was chiefly carried on by the Greeks, Armenians, and Turks; and as the Ruſſians poſſeſſed no port, either upon the Sea of Azof or the Euxine; Tcherkaſk, capital of the Coſſacs of the Don, was the place where the productions of this empire and Turkey were reciprocally exchanged. The Greek and Armenian merchants ſailed to Taganroc, where they performed quarantine; and then proceeded with their merchandize to Tcherkaſk, having firſt paid the duty at Temernik, a ſmall village upon the Don, now the fortreſs of St. Demitri. Tcherkaſk was alſo the emporium of an inland commerce between the merchants of Kuban and Crim Tartary and the Ruſſians. The imports were chiefly Greek wines, raiſins, dried figs, almonds, oil, rice, ſaffron, painted linens and cottons. The exports, hides and leather, coarſe linen, hard-ware, caviare, &c *. The Greek and Armenian merchants, in re-

* See Tarif of the Imported and Exported Wares. Buſ. Hiſt. Mag. XI. p. 373.

turning to Conſtantinople, ſupplied the ports of the Sea of Azof and the Euxine with Ruſſian and European commodities.

In order to have a general idea of the traffic in the Turkiſh Seas, we muſt take a curſory view of their havens, imports and exports.

Among the harbours of the Black Sea reſorted to by the Greek and Armenian merchants, the moſt frequented were thoſe of Crim Tartary; namely, Yenikalè, one of the fortreſſes lately ceded to Ruſſia, Balaklava, Koſlof, and Caffa, which merits a particular deſcription. Caffa and the whole peninſula, which were before under the dominion of the Turks, were, by an article in the late peace, declared independent; and ſubject to a khan, elected by the natives, but confirmed both by the empreſs and grand-ſignor: it is the capital of the Crimea; and the Tartars, who conſider it as a place of great celebrity and importance, diſtinguiſh it by the name of Half Conſtantinople *. The bay, which is very large,

* Nennen ſolche di Tartary nur *Jarim Stambul.* Kleeman's Reiſe von Wien nach Conſtantinopel. See a curious account of Caffa, in that work. The author obſerved there ſeveral ruins of the buildings which the Genoeſe

large, is capable of containing ſeveral hundred merchant ſhips; and its inhabitants are the richeſt, and drive the moſt extenſive trade in the Black Sea. The productions of Crim Tartary, exported from Caffa and the other havens of that peninſula, conſiſt chiefly in corn, wine, wool, fine black and grey lamb-ſkins, and ſalt. The imports are fine and coarſe linens, printed cottons, nankeen, Ruſſian leather, fine cloths, velvets, taffeties, furs, ropes, paper, ſalted fiſh, and caviare, tobacco leaves, copper and tin, hard-ware, gold and ſilver threads, beads and corals, earthen wares, and a coarſe ſort of porcelain, glaſs ware *, &c. &c.

The port of Taman lies oppoſite to Yenikalè, at the extremity of the ſtraits of Caffa, upon a ſmall iſland in the mouth of the river Kuban: it is ſubject to the khan of Crim Tartary; and traffics with the Circaſſians from Mount Caucaſus, the Coſſacs dwelling near the rivers which fall into the Kuban, and the

noeſe conſtructed when Caffa was in their poſſeſſion, particularly the remains of the ancient citadel, of churches, of angels and ſaints groſsly carved in ſtone, and ſeveral Latin inſcriptions, p. 168, &c. He deſcribes Crim Tartary as a very fruitful country.

* Guldenſtaedt, p. 12—14.

Tartars

Tartars inhabiting the deſert between the Kuban and the Don. The exports are honey, wax, ſalt, wool, ſkins of foxes, martens, ſheep, &c.: the imports nearly ſimilar to thoſe at Caffa.

The ports of the Eaſtern and Southern coaſts of the Black Sea are ſituated in the Turkiſh provinces of Mingrelia, Georgia, and Anatolia: the principal are Poti, where the merchants of Georgia reſort; Trebizond; Cherſon, which is diſtant only 60 miles from Tokat, at which town the caravans from Perſia aſſemble and ſeparate, in order to proceed by different routes to Smyrna and Conſtantinople; Sinope, the neareſt port upon the Black Sea to Angora, the only place hitherto known that ſupplies the fine goats-hair, generally called camels-hair, from which the beſt camlets are manufactured, and which equal, if not ſurpaſs, thoſe of Bruſſels: this hair, ſpun into yarn, is chiefly purchaſed at Tokat by the merchants of the caravans in their way to Smyrna, from which port Europe is moſtly ſupplied with this commodity. The Greek and Armenian merchants draw from theſe parts honey, wax, ſkins of foxes, of martens, and of ſheep, raw and manufactured ſilk, both Perſian and Turkiſh, cotton,

callicoes, rice, ſaffron, dried fruit, &c. They ſupply them in return with Ruſſian and other European productions. Tios or Tilios, where the Turks have a dock for repairing ſhips, and at which place ſails, cordage, anchors, and other naval ſtores, are advantageouſly diſpoſed of.

The ports on the Weſtern ſhore of the Black Sea, beſide Kinburn, are Varna in Bulgaria, which is diſtant about 100 miles from Adrianople; Kilia-Nova, at the mouth of the Danube in Wallachia; and Akkermen, upon the mouth of the Dnieſter, in Beſſarabia, and about 60 miles from Bender. Theſe ports furniſh wool, dried fruits, Hungarian and Moldavian wines, buffalo ſkins, &c. The traffic to Varna and Akkermen might be conſiderably increaſed by forming a more regular communication with Adrianople and Bender; and that of Kilia-Nova might be rendered highly important, by vending the productions of Auſtria and Hungary, if the navigation of the Danube was not obſtructed by the jealouſy of the Turks. The imports of thoſe havens conſiſt in European and Ruſſian productions, for the moſt part ſimilar to thoſe of Caffa.

Conſtantinople and Gallipoli are the principal

cipal havens in the ſea of Marmora. The Ruſſian imports are furs and ſkins, leather, ſail cloth, cordage, anchors, tar and pitch, ſteel and iron, ſalt fiſh, caviare, butter, ſea-horſe teeth, wax, tea, muſk, caſtor oil, colours, paper, coarſe cloth, linen, and corn: the exports to Ruſſia are raw and manufactured ſilk and cotton, muſlins, rich Turkiſh ſtuffs and carpets, wool and Angora-goats-hair, Grecian wines, oil, all kinds of European and Aſiatic fruit, lemons and oranges, tobacco and ſnuffs, ſpices, ſaffron, opium, and other ſpecies of drugs, pearls and precious ſtones, gold and ſilver *, &c.

II. The ports and territory ceded to Ruſſia, and the new towns ſince conſtructed by the empreſs. The ceded places are, 1. The diſtrict upon the Sea of Azof; 2. Kertſch and Yenikalè, in Crim Tartary; 3. The fortreſs of Kinburn; 4. The territory between the Dnieper and the Bog.

1. The diſtrict bordering upon the Sea of Azof compriſes, beſide a large tract of territory to the eaſt and weſt of Azof, the fortreſſes Azof, Taganroc, and Petroſſk. Azof is no longer of the ſame importance as it was

* Guldenſtaedt, p. 21—25.

in

in the reign of Peter the Great; the branch of the Don, upon the mouth of which it ſtands, being now ſo choaked with ſand as ſcarcely to admit the ſmalleſt veſſels. The merchandize therefore is uſually depoſited at Taganroc or Petroffk; and the frigates and merchant-ſhips, which were formerly conſtructed at Azof, are now built either at St. Demitri or Roſtof, and paſs down the Don into the Sea of Azof, through another branch of that river. As the harbour of Taganroc contains, upon an average, only ſeven feet of water, the veſſels which land there muſt be built to draw no more than five or ſix feet: the town has been rendered commodious by the conſtruction of ſeveral warehouſes and other buildings during the late war; and is eſteemed for the ſalubrity of the air. The fortreſs of Petroffk, which ſtands at the mouth of the river Broda, and commands the Turkiſh frontiers, was alſo erected during the late war. It is extremely advantageouſly ſituated, as forming a direct communication with the havens of Crim Tartary; and might eaſily be rendered more ſecure than that of Taganroc, from the ſuperior depth of water. By the poſſeſſion of theſe fortreſſes, the navigation of the Sea of Azof is perfectly ſecured. The frontiers of this

ceded

ceded territory, to the weſt of that Sea, are guarded by a chain of ſmall forts, extending from Petroſik to the Dnieper.

2. The fortreſſes of Kertſch and Yenikalè, ſituated upon the eaſtern coaſts of Crim Tartary, and near the northern entrance of the ſtraits of Caffa; are of the greateſt importance, by commanding the paſſage which forms the communication between the Sea of Azof and the Euxine.

3. Kinburn is the only port poſſeſſed by the Ruſſians on the coaſts of the Black Sea: it ſtands cloſe to the preſent frontiers, at the mouth of the Dnieper, oppoſite to the Turkiſh fortreſs Otchakof; the latter being a place of ſuperior ſtrength, muſt, while it continues in the hands of the Turks, obſtruct, in caſe of a rupture, the navigation of the Dnieper. Kinburn was intended for the principal depoſitory of the merchandize ſent from the provinces bordering upon the Dnieper; but as the harbour, on account of its quickſand, affords no ſecurity for anchorage, the new town of Kherſon is at preſent rendered the great emporium of this trade.

4. The poſſeſſion of the territory between the Bog and the Dnieper opens a ſecure communication between the Black Sea, and thoſe

rich and extenſive provinces through which the Dnieper takes its courſe. This important territory, ſo eſſential to the exiſtence of the new commerce, was chiefly inhabited by hordes of roving Tartars; and by the Zaporogian Coſſacs, who dwelled near the Dnieper, and by their piracies rendered its navigation extremely hazardous. The origin of theſe Coſſacs is thus traced by the Ruſſian hiſtorians. In the beginning of the 15th century, a tribe of the Coſſacs of the Ukraine, who inhabited the territory between the Bog and the Dnieper, were known under the denomination of Zaporogian *, from their ſituation near the cataracts of the laſt-mentioned river, where ſtood their Setcha †, or principal ſettlement. This ſetcha was a kind of fortreſs ſurrounded with a wooden wall, and was at firſt merely intended as a place of aſſembly; where theſe Coſſacs were convened, in order to deliberate upon the method of carrying on their cuſtomary depredations, or for the purpoſe of electing a chief. By degrees it was filled with habitations; and afterwards appropriated to

* Porogi ſignifies cataracts.

† Setcha means any place ſurrounded with a wall, or fortification, ſeparated from the neighbouring diſtrict. S. R. G. IV. p. 414.

a ſeparate community of perſons; who devoted themſelves ſolely to arms, and totally excluded all women from the precinct of their military reſidence. The inhabitants were divided into a certain number of claſſes; each of which elected its reſpective leader, who were all under the juriſdiction of a hetman or ſupreme chief choſen by the whole ſociety. Theſe Zaporogian Coſſacs became ſo diſtinguiſhed for their bravery and knowledge of deſultory war; that perſons, not only from the circumjacent parts, but alſo from more diſtant regions, flocked to this ſociety of warriors: the inhabitants of the ſetcha were not obliged to continue in it for any ſettled term; being only bound, while they remained, to conform themſelves to the regulations and diſcipline of their aſſociates. Whenever any of them were diſpoſed to marry, they were under the neceſſity of quitting the ſetcha, but were permitted to ſettle in the neighbouring diſtrict, with the privilege of re-admiſſion; provided they were not attended with their wives and families, whom they were nevertheleſs allowed occaſionally to viſit. The Zaporogians increaſed their numbers by offering an aſylum to deſerters*, and by forcing and enticing youths

* S. R. G. IV. p. 441.

and children from the Ukraine and from Poland, whom they trained to a military life, and admitted into their community upon ſimilar conditions, and with the ſame privileges, which they themſelves poſſeſſed. The place of their reſidence was occaſionally varied: when their numbers increaſed, or when the hordes wandered at a conſiderable diſtance from each other, different parties erected and occupied ſeveral diſtinct ſetchas. The firſt ſetcha of this extraordinary ſociety ſeems to have been ſituated upon an iſland of the Dnieper below the cataracts: the laſt which they inhabited, at the final abolition of their government, and which at that period was the only one they poſſeſſed, ſtood near the rivulet Buſulak, at the point where it falls into the Dnieper, in the government of Kiof*.

As the members of this community were collected from various nations, and from the nature of their conſtitution perpetually changing, their number could never be exactly aſcertained: Manſtein relates, that in the war in which he ſerved againſt the Turks, they

* Mr. Muller has ſo accurately and circumſtantially deſcribed the ſetcha of the Zaporogian Coſſacs, that I would refer the curious reader to his account, from which I have ſelected this ſhort extract. S. R. G. IV. p. 411—472.

brought

brought 8000 horſe into the field; and that, on an emergency, they could at that period have raiſed 12,000 or 15,000. They frequently performed incredible feats of valour in the campaigns of the Ruſſians againſt the Turks and Tartars; nor were their ſervices confined ſolely to land: by their ſkill in navigating the Dnieper, they occaſionally defended the mouth of that river; and attacked with ſucceſs the armed veſſels which appeared upon the contiguous coaſts of the Black Sea. But while they were thus formidable to their enemies, they were ſcarcely leſs to be dreaded by their allies. Nominally dependent upon the hetman of the Ukraine, they were claſſed among the ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire; but the peculiarity of their manners, their ſeparation from all other ſociety, their popular form of government, together with their warlike diſpoſition, rendered them a barbarous and unruly banditti *: accuſtomed to live by rapine and devaſtation, they pillaged the Ruſ-

* "Manſtein calls them a republic of thieves and vagabonds, who ſubſiſt on nothing but rapine both in peace and war. The court of Ruſſia cannot hinder their continual excurſions; nay, is even obliged to keep meaſures with them, for fear of their changing ſides." Manſtein's Memoirs, p. 19.

ſian merchants who paſſed through their country; and interrupted the navigation of the Dnieper by continual piracies *. Soon after the concluſion of the Turkiſh war in 1774, the Ruſſian government ſeized a favourable opportunity to deſtroy their ſetcha, and to diſperſe the inhabitants. For this purpoſe, General Belmain marched from the Turkiſh frontiers at the head of 12,000 regulars, and encamped about 18 verſts from the ſetcha. Taking his departure before midnight, he made a forced march, and ſurrounding the ſetcha at four in the morning, ſurpriſed the inhabitants into a ſurrender before they were able to make any effectual reſiſtance. He found 46 pieces of cannon, and a large quantity of ſmall arms and ammunition. By this ſalutary act of power, Ruſſia has ſecured the merchants trading in thoſe parts from the dread of perpetual depredations; and put an end to that ſyſtem of piracy which ſo greatly obſtructed the commerce carried on upon the Dnieper.

III. The Ruſſian countries which are moſt intereſted in this commerce, are thoſe that are contiguous to the Dnieper and the Don. This

* The boats of theſe Zaporogian Coſſacs were rowed by 50 or 60 men, had no ſail, and generally carried two ſmall cannon. S. R. G. IX. p. 5.

general

general deſcription comprizes the provinces of Smolenſko, Mohilef, Ukraine, New Ruſſia, Bielgorod, Voronetz, Ukraina-Slobodſkaia, and Azof: a large tract of territory which furniſhes in great abundance every ſpecies of grain, hemp, flax, hides, maſts, planks, honey, wax, tobacco, &c.

In theſe ceded diſtricts the empreſs has already raiſed ſeveral new towns, the principal whereof are Kherſon, Catharinenſlaf, and Marianopoli.

Kherſon is ſituated on the Dnieper, about ten miles below the mouth of the Ingulec, and is chiefly built with hewn ſtone. It is intended to be the principal mart for all the commodities of export and import; but if an extenſive trade ſhould take place in this quarter, the great depoſitory for the merchandize will be more conveniently fixed on ſome ſpot below the bar of the Dnieper, and about twelve miles ſouth of Kherſon. It contains a dock for the conſtruction of large veſſels; from which ſeveral men of war and frigates, as well as merchant ſhips, have been already launched. Catharinenſlaf, or the Glory of Catharine, is built near the ſpot where the ſmall river Kiltzin falls into the Samara, and is appointed to be the capital of the govern-

ment of Azof; it is colonized by many Greeks and Armenians from Crim Tartary, and by others of thoſe nations who ſerved in the late war againſt the Turks. Another town, called Marianopoli, has been alſo raiſed upon the borders of the Sea of Azof, between the rivers Myus and Calmius. Theſe three towns, as well as the numerous villages which have ſuddenly reared their heads in a country formerly inhabited only by lawleſs banditti, or traverſed by roving hordes, are filled with Ruſſians; with Tartars reclaimed from their wandering life; and with numerous coloniſts, particularly Greeks and Armenians, who migrated from Crim Tartary, and the adjacent provinces of the Turkiſh empire.

The navigation of the Don and the Dnieper, which rivers form the communication between thoſe provinces and the Turkiſh Seas, remains to be conſidered.

The Don * takes its riſe from the ſmall lake of St. John, near Tula, in the government of Moſcow, and paſſing through part of the province of Voronetz, a ſmall portion of the Ukraina-Slobodſkaia, and the whole province of Azof, divides itſelf near Tcher-

* S. R. G. IX. p. 11, 12.

kaſk

kaſk into three ſtreams; and falls in theſe ſeparate branches into the Sea of Azof. The river has ſo many windings; is in many parts ſo ſhallow; and abounds with ſuch numerous ſhoals; as to be ſcarcely navigable, excepting in the ſpring, upon the melting of the ſnows; and its mouth is alſo ſo choaked up with ſand, that only flat-bottomed veſſels, excepting in the ſame ſeaſon, can paſs into the Sea of Azof. The banks of the Don, and the rivulets which fall into it, are clothed with large tracts of foreſt, whoſe timber is floated down the ſtream to St. Demetri and Roſtof, where the frigates for the Sea of Azof are chiefly conſtructed. The navigation of the Don may poſſibly hereafter be rendered highly valuable, by conveying to the Black Sea the iron of Siberia, the Chineſe goods, and the Perſian merchandize; which latter commodities, as well as the products of India, formerly found their way into Europe through this ſame channel *.

Since the acquiſition of Ruſſian Lithuania, the ceſſion of the diſtrict between the Don

* The iron of Siberia, and the merchandize of China, are ſometimes ſent by an inland navigation to the Volga: the Perſian commodities are conveyed acroſs the Caſpian to the ſame river; from thence they might be tranſported by a land-carriage of only 40 miles to the Don.

and

and the Dnieper, and the total diſperſion of the Zaporogian Coſſacs, the Dnieper, from its ſource to its mouth, now flows through the Ruſſian dominions; and through this whole courſe, of above 800 miles, its navigation is only once interrupted by a ſeries of cataracts *, which begin below the mouth of the Samara, and continue for a ſpace of above 40 miles: they are not, however, ſo dangerous as they have been repreſented; for they may be paſſed in ſpring, without much hazard, even by loaded barks. In other parts of the year the goods are landed at Kemenſk, oppoſite the mouth of the Samara, and tranſported about 40 miles by land to Kitchkaſe, about ſix miles from the fortreſs of Alexandrovſk, where they are again embarked, and deſcend the ſtream without interruption to Kherſon †. If the trade ſhould increaſe to a great degree; the cataracts might, at a conſiderable expence, be rendered navigable at all ſeaſons of the year.

IV. The progreſs hitherto made by the Ruſſians to eſtabliſh an intercourſe between

* Muller has deſcribed theſe cataracts. S. R. G. IV. p. 411, &c.

† See Muller. S. R. G. IX. p. 16; and Guldenſtaedt.

the

the ports of the Black Sea and thoſe of the Mediterranean.

The empreſs, in order to encourage her ſubjects to engage in this branch of traffic, has leſſened the duties of import and export *, and has contributed towards forming a Ruſſian houſe, or company, trading to the Black Sea. Soon after the peace of 1774, four merchant-ſhips, fitted out for this purpoſe, ſailed from Peterſburgh, and not, as might have been expected, from the ports of the Black Sea: they were laden with iron, flax, hemp, hides, ſail-cloth, and coarſe linen, at the ſole expence of the empreſs, who granted all the profits ariſing from the ſale of their cargoes to the ſaid houſe. This plan, however, was not attended with the ſucceſs it ſeemed to promiſe; and its failure aroſe from the jealouſy of the Turks. The ſhips were, under ſpecious pretences, prevented from paſſing the Dardanelles; the cargoes were ſold in the Levant and the Mediterranean; and they returned to the Baltic without having effected the main object of the voyage. Before the Ruſſians could make any further attempts to open this channel of com-

* See a liſt of the duties of export and import, in Buſ. Hiſt. Mag. XI. p. 373.

merce,

merce, diſſenſions took place between the empreſs and the grand ſignior, concerning the independency of the Crimea, and the free election of a khan; which threatened an immediate war; and ſuſpended all commercial exertions in regard to the Black Sea; until a new pacification was concluded between the two rival powers, on the 21ſt of March 1779.

Since that period, beſide ſeveral Greek veſſels, which ſailed from the Sea of Azof and the Euxine under Ruſſian colours, and were allowed to paſs the Dardanelles; a Ruſſian ſhip, manned with ſeamen in the ſervice of government, and laden with ſalted beef, taking its departure, in 1780, from Kherſon, for the port of Toulon, was allowed to paſs the Dardanelles. Soon afterwards five others, freighted with iron, made ſucceſsful voyages to the Archipelago: alſo four ſmall veſſels, and a fifth of 400 tons juſt launched, laden with hemp and tobacco, were expected to ſail from Kherſon for France, in the month of November 1781.

Such, in 1781, was the infant ſtate of that commerce, which ſome authors have deſcribed as capable of producing an immediate revolution in the trade of Europe *: and in this, or in

* « Catharine II. va donc ouvrir une ancienne route « du commerce *le plus vaſte & le plus riche*, qui ſe *ſoit fait* « *ſur*

in a ſtill more fluctuating ſtate, it will probably continue, as long as the Turks retain the dominion

« *ſur la terre.* Ses ports, dans la mer d'Azow & ſur la « mer Noire, peuvent devenir le centre de tous les échanges « du nord & du midi; & les provinces méridionales de « ſon empire jouiront d'un débouché avantageux & facile, « dont elles ont manqué juſqu'ici pour l'écoulement de « leurs productions." Eſſai ſur le Com. de Ruſſ. p. 109.

« Concluons que, de quelque maniere que la Ruſſie « exploite ſon commerce de la mer Noire, ſoit par elle- « même, ſoit par le ſecours des étrangers, ſon avantage « le plus ſolide & le plus réel doit conſiſter dans un écoule- « ment facile & rapide de ſes productions méridionales. « Ces productions ſont les ſuifs, les cires, les chanvres, « le lin, les cordages, les tabacs, le fer & le cuivre. La « plus grande partie ne fera plus le tour de l'Europe, pour « parvenir en Eſpagne, en Italie, & dans les ports de la « Mediterranée; & le petit nombre des autres formera de « nouveaux objets de débit pour ces pays, qui n'ont pas eu « juſqu'ici l'uſage de s'en fournir, comme le fer & le « cuivre." p. 127.

All theſe vaſt projects are in a manner annihilated by the following reflection: « Au reſte, les beſoins & les « facultés d'une nation étant naturellement bornés, le gou- « vernement Ruſſe devra mettre des limites à ſes commu- « nications par la mer Noire, afin qu'elles ne prejudicient « point a celles de la Baltique. Ces deux commerces doi- « vent ſe balancer, ſe combiner ſans ſe nuire, & ils doivent « être dirigés de ſorte que la prééminence reſte toujours « attachée au plus ancien." p. 127, 128.

Many perſons are of opinion, that the obſtacles to the riſing commerce of the Black Sea are by no means injurious to the intereſts of Ruſſia. For her commodities and productions

minion of their own ſeas. For that jealous people will either openly oppoſe, or at leaſt will clandeſtinely obſtruct, the progreſs of the Ruſſians in thoſe parts; and will never readily give a free paſſage through the Dardanelles to a powerful rival, though they conſented to it in the humiliating peace of 1774. Perhaps theſe claims, urged on one ſide, and evaded on the other, will engender perpetual diſſenſions, and will not be finally terminated but by a ſeries of obſtinate and bloody wars. Mean while the trade cannot for a conſiderable period be extenſive, which depends upon ſuch caſual circumſtances as the coalition and rupture of rival and neighbouring powers.

productions being articles of neceſſity, not of luxury, no facility given to their exportation could add to their general conſumption; and the increaſe of exportation from the Black Sea would have diminiſhed that from St. Peterſburgh, and the other ports of the Baltic, and nearly in the ſame proportion. By the facility and cheapneſs of land-carriage, and the improvements of the inland navigation, the productions of the remoteſt provinces are readily ſent to the ports of the Baltic, without raiſing their price too high. And as the goods which Ruſſia produces are either peculiar to this empire, or ſuch as other nations muſt purchaſe, they cannot paſs through too many hands before they are exported: to diminiſh, therefore, by facilitating their exportation, the price of ſuch goods which ſhe already ſells cheaper than other nations, would be to incur a manifeſt loſs, and to gratify the foreign trader at her own expence.

The

The courſe of ſubſequent events can alone diſcover, whether the pacification, ſigned on the 9th of January 1784, will be more permanent than the former treaties; or whether the ſame cauſes will not continue to produce the ſame effects. In a word, the Ruſſian commerce in thoſe parts can ſcarcely be eſtabliſhed upon a firm baſis, until the empreſs acquires a fleet in the Black Sea ſuperior to that of her rival. And perhaps the completion of this great national object may be effected by the late acquiſition of Crim Tartary and the Kuban, rendered highly valuable by an additional extent of ſea-coaſt, and the important harbour of Actiar or Sebaſtopol.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

Mines of Ruſſia *belonging to the crown and to individuals.—Gold and ſilver.—Copper and iron.—Average profits which government draws from the mines, founderies, and duties upon copper and iron.*

THE mines of the Ruſſian empire may be divided into, I. Thoſe which belong to the crown; and, II. Thoſe which are the property of individuals.

I. The former comprize all the gold and ſilver, and a few copper and iron works.

1. The gold and ſilver mines are as follow. The moſt ancient gold mine in the Ruſſian empire is that of Voetſk, near Olonetz, between the lake Onega and the White Sea. Its chief produce is a violet pyritical copper ore, mixed with quartz, and containing rich pieces of gold, but not in ſufficient quantity to defray its charges. From 1744 to 1776, this mine yielded only 57 pounds of gold, and about 9000 pood * of copper; and as the expences amounted to £. 16,000 more

* A pood = 40 Ruſſian or 36 Engliſh pounds. The pound uſed in this chapter is the Ruſſian, which is to the Engliſh as 9 to 10.

than

than the profits, it was neglected until 1772, when it was again worked. Since that time it has furniſhed annually about 250 poods of copper, and about two or three pounds of gold-duſt which is waſhed from the mine; beſides accidental pieces that have been found and ſent to Peterſburgh as ſpecimens, and which may amount to five or ſix pounds more.

2. The next gold mines diſcovered in the empire were thoſe near Catharinenburgh: the ore is very martial, commonly of a cubic form in a quartz matrix; and the gold is extracted by waſhing. The annual produce of pure gold never exceeded 200 pounds, and was commonly much leſs: in 1772 it was only 101 pounds.

3. The moſt important ſilver mines are thoſe of Kolyvan, between the rivers Oby and Irtiſh, near the mountains which form the frontiers of Siberia, and ſeparate that country from the Chineſe empire, or rather from the territory of the Calmucs dependent upon the Chineſe. Theſe mines were firſt diſcovered in 1728, by Akinfi Nikitich Demidof; and were for ſome years worked by him, for his own private emolument, as copper mines. It is ſuſpected, that he privately extracted the nobler metals, but prudently concealed the

ſecret until 1744; when, in order to prevent its being divulged by other means, he made the diſcovery to the empreſs Elizabeth, who appropriated them to the crown *. Theſe mines, ſituated near Voſkreſenſk, and in the Smeyeſkaia Gora, or Mountain of Serpents, are known by the general apellation of Kolyvan, from a village of that name upon the rivulet Bielaia, in the diſtrict of Kuſnetz, where the ore was formerly ſmelted. But as the adjacent country is ſcantily provided with wood, new founderies have been conſtructed at Barnaul, Novopauloſſk, and Suſunſk, to the north eaſt of Kolyvan, in a diſtrict abounding with trees †.

Theſe mines, which may juſtly be ſtyled the Potoſi of the Ruſſians, have produced from 1749 to 1762 from 8,000 to 16,000 pounds of ſilver; from 1763 to 1769 from 20,000 to 32,000; and ſince that period to 1778 from 40,000 to 48,000. The ſilver contains upwards of three per cent. of gold; the ſeparation of which is made in the imperial laboratory within the fortreſs of Peterſburgh. The whole produce ever extracted from the mines

* Pallas Reiſe, P. II. p. 582.

† Ibid. p. 579.

amounted,

amounted, in 1771, to 400,000 pounds of ſilver, with 12,720 of gold; and ſince 1771 we may calculate the annual produce at above 44,000 of ſilver, and about 1200 of gold.

The mines and founderies of Kolyvan employ nearly 40,000 coloniſts; beſides the peaſants in the diſtricts of Tomſk and Kuſnetz, who, in lieu of paying the poll-tax in money, cut wood, make charcoal, and tranſport the ore to the founderies. The expences, which were formerly ſupplied from the treaſury, and of courſe conſiderably diminiſhed the profit, have, ſince the year 1765, been abſolutely annihilated; and the whole produce of the mines in gold and ſilver is clear profit. In the ſame year a mint was eſtabliſhed at the foundery of Suſunſk, for the coinage of the copper ſupplied from the mines of Kolyvan, the greateſt part of which had been hitherto of no uſe. Pieces of one, two, five, and ten copecs *, are ſtruck and diſperſed over Siberia. Of this currency, the ſum of £. 50,000 is annually coined, which is ſufficient for reimburſing the poll-tax; paying the miners; tranſporting the ore; purchaſing the lead which muſt be brought from Nerſhinſk; and

* A ſmall coin, nearly equal to ½ d.

defraying the expence of ſending the gold and ſilver as far as Tobolſk. The ſilver which is ſmelted in the above-mentioned founderies, is conveyed upon large ſledges twice in the year: the firſt convoy ſets off in the beginning of the winter, and reaches Peterſburgh a little after Chriſtmas; the ſecond in the middle of winter, and arrives there towards ſpring.

4. The ſilver mines of Nerſhinſk, which were opened in 1704, are ſituated in Dauria, the ſouth eaſtermoſt part of Siberia, between the rivers Shilka and Argoon, and are very numerous. Their produce from their firſt opening to the year 1772 is as follows *:

	Pounds of ſilver	
From 1704 to 1721	4,732	
1721 to 1731	1,498	
1731 to 1741	1,333	
1741 to 1751	15,657	
1751 to 1761	43,631	
1761 to 1771	126,247	
1771	16,733	
1772	16,200,	which contained 200 pounds of gold.
	226,031	

In 1767 they yielded 17,400 pounds; but the annual average produce may be eſtimated

* Buſ. Erd.—Beſ. Vol. I. p. 1126.

at

at 16,000. The ſilver contains, in 40,000 pounds, nearly 500 of gold, which is ſeparated at Peterſburgh. The ores being generally very rich in lead, and extremely poor in ſilver, the latter is eaſily extracted. Many millions of poods of lead remain uſeleſs upon the ſpot, only about 14 or 18,000 being annually required for the ſeparation of the ſilver from the copper at the founderies of Kolyvan; the carriage into the inner parts of the empire being too expenſive; and the export to China being prohibited. The number of men employed in theſe mines and founderies are about 1900 free coloniſts, between 1000 and 1800 convicts, and 11,000 Ruſſian peaſants of the diſtrict of Nerſhinſk: 6000 of theſe latter are employed in cutting and carrying wood, making and tranſporting charcoal; while the reſt, who live at ſome diſtance from the mines, cultivate a certain portion of ground, and bring in winter the produce to the magazines of the founderies. The annual expences may generally be rated at £. 14,800.

5. Some mines yielding ſilver have been lately diſcovered in the diſtrict of Kraſnoyarſk near the Lena, between the rivers Yins and Yeniſèi.

The gold of Catharinenburgh is obtained

at the rate of 40 guineas per pound; and as when coined it produces £. 68. 5*s.* the profit is not very conſiderable. The ſilver and gold from Kolyvan is procured without any expence, as I have before mentioned. A pound of ſilver from Nerſhinſk is ſaid to coſt between 16*s.* and £. 1; and as the ſame quantity of this metal, when coined, is equal to 22 roubles 75 copecs and ½, or = about £. 4. 10*s.* ½*d.* the profit is great. The gold extracted from this ſilver is obtained for £. 11. 8*s.* per pound.

6. The crown poſſeſſes at preſent but very few copper and iron works.

The iron works in the north part of the diſtrict of Olonetz produce annually between 8 or 10,000 poods of caſt iron for guns, bombs, and balls; and 15,000 of indifferent iron in bars and plates. Thoſe of the Uralian mountains employ above 1700 workmen, and 26,800 peaſants; and yielded, in 1772, 423,987 poods of iron in bars and plates, which were chiefly uſed for the army and navy: that of Kamenſk gave in the ſame year 93,000 poods of iron, which were forged into guns, and 8172 into bars.

Four copper founderies on the weſt ſide of the Uralian mountains, in the government of

§ Orenburgh,

Orenburgh, and three in Permia, produced, in 1772, only 13,868 poods of copper. At Catharinenburgh the crown has eſtabliſhed a mint for coining the copper procured from the imperial and private founderies into that ſpecies of money which is current throughout Ruſſia; and which is tranſported by water to Moſcow, Peterſburgh, and other parts.

II. Private mines and founderies come next under conſideration. The greateſt part of thoſe mines, that ſupply ſuch an immenſe quantity of iron and copper, are moſtly ſituated in the Uralian mountains, and the hills ſtretching from them; a few in the government of Moſcow excepted, whoſe produce is but ſmall.

The Uralian mountains contain 105 founderies, 56 of which are for iron, 37 for copper, and the remainder for both metals. The peaſants, part of whom belong to the proprietors, and part to the crown, employed in the mines and founderies, amount to 95,000. In 1772 * theſe works yielded 130,169 poods of copper, and 4,558,718 of caſt iron. The duty paid to the crown from the private pro-

* We muſt take this year as the average ſtandard, as being previous to the rebellion of Pugatchef, who deſtroyed ſeveral of the founderies; but moſt of them have been ſince re-eſtabliſhed.

prietors is 4 copecs, or nearly 2*d.* for every pood of caſt iron, beſide 5 copecs upon every pood for exportation. With reſpect to the copper, the proprietors are obliged to ſell three quarters of the whole produce of the mines to the crown at Catharinenburgh, at the low rate of £. 1. 2*s.* per pood *. The remainder they either ſell to the crown at the ſame place, at £. 1. 14*s.* per pood; at Moſcow, for £. 2. 2*s.*; or at Peterſburgh, for £. 2. 4*s.*

At Catharinenburgh copper money to the value of £. 400,000 is annually coined. The crown receives a pood of this metal, upon an average, at £. 1. 2*s.* 6*d.*; and iſſues it when ſtruck at £. 3. 4*s.*

From theſe data government appears to gain annually from the mines, and duties upon iron, as follows:

* By an edict of the empreſs, dated July 1, 1780, the proprietors, inſtead of ſelling three quarters of the copper to the crown at £. 1. 2 *s.* per pood, are now only obliged to diſpoſe of half at that price: this new regulation muſt have ſomewhat reduced the profits of the copper coinage. See Journ. St. Pet. for 1780, p. 53.

Gain

Gain upon the copper coinage at Catharinenburgh - - - - - - -	£. 257,625 0
44,000 pounds of ſilver, and 1,200 of gold, the annual produce from the mines of Kolyvan, when coined, yield - - - - - - - - - -	282,164 4
16,320 pounds of ſilver, and 160 of gold, from the mines of Nerſhinſk	71,194 8
Government iron works - - - - -	32,529 16
Duty on 4,558,718 poods of caſt iron	36,469 5
	£. 679,982 13

The iron and copper are tranſported by means of the Koſva, Tchuſſovaja, Bielaya, and Kama, into the Volga: ſome of the veſſels deſcend that river, in order to ſupply with iron the provinces ſituated along its banks; but far the greateſt numbers are towed up the ſtream to Niſhnèi-Novogorod, and Tver, and through the canal of Viſhnèi-Voloſhok to Peterſburgh. The veſſels, which ſet out immediately upon the breaking of the froſt in ſpring, commonly perform this navigation before the end of autumn; but they ſometimes are obliged to winter by the way.

POSTSCRIPT.

DECEMBER 1784.

THE gold mine of Olonetz or Vogetſſkoi, from which the richeſt ſpecimens for cabinets have been obtained, has been given up a few years ago, on account of its not defraying the expence of working, though the ore was very rich in copper.

The gold mines of Catharinenburgh have remained nearly in the ſame condition.

The mines of Kolyvan have been embarraſſed by the new law, iſſued four years ago, by which the peaſants working for their capitation at the mines, have had their pay doubled throughout the empire, and liberty given to work only in winter. The effect of this regulation at Kolyvan, has been to deprive the founderies of near half the quantity of charcoal they required; and as the people neceſſary for the foundery have been in part employed in making charcoal, the produce in ſilver has ſince that period never reached 800 poods; and in 1784 did not yield 500. However, with an additional number of hands, the produce of theſe mines might be made to produce above 1000 poods;

poods; for in that quarter ſeveral rich mines have been diſcovered; amongſt others that of Tcherepa Noſſkoy, very rich in gold, and the richeſt in ſilver ever found in Siberia: alſo ſome lead mines have been opened in the neighbourhood, which are very promiſing.

The copper coin of Kolyvan underwent conſiderable alteration in 1782; the proceſs of extracting the precious metal from the copper has been greatly improved throughout the empire, and the ſum annually coined is now ſomewhat above 300,000 roubles.

The ſilver mines of Nertſhinſk have been in a flouriſhing and even increaſing condition, and their produce ſince 1781 has reached between 4 and 600 poods annually.

CHAP.

CHAP. VII.

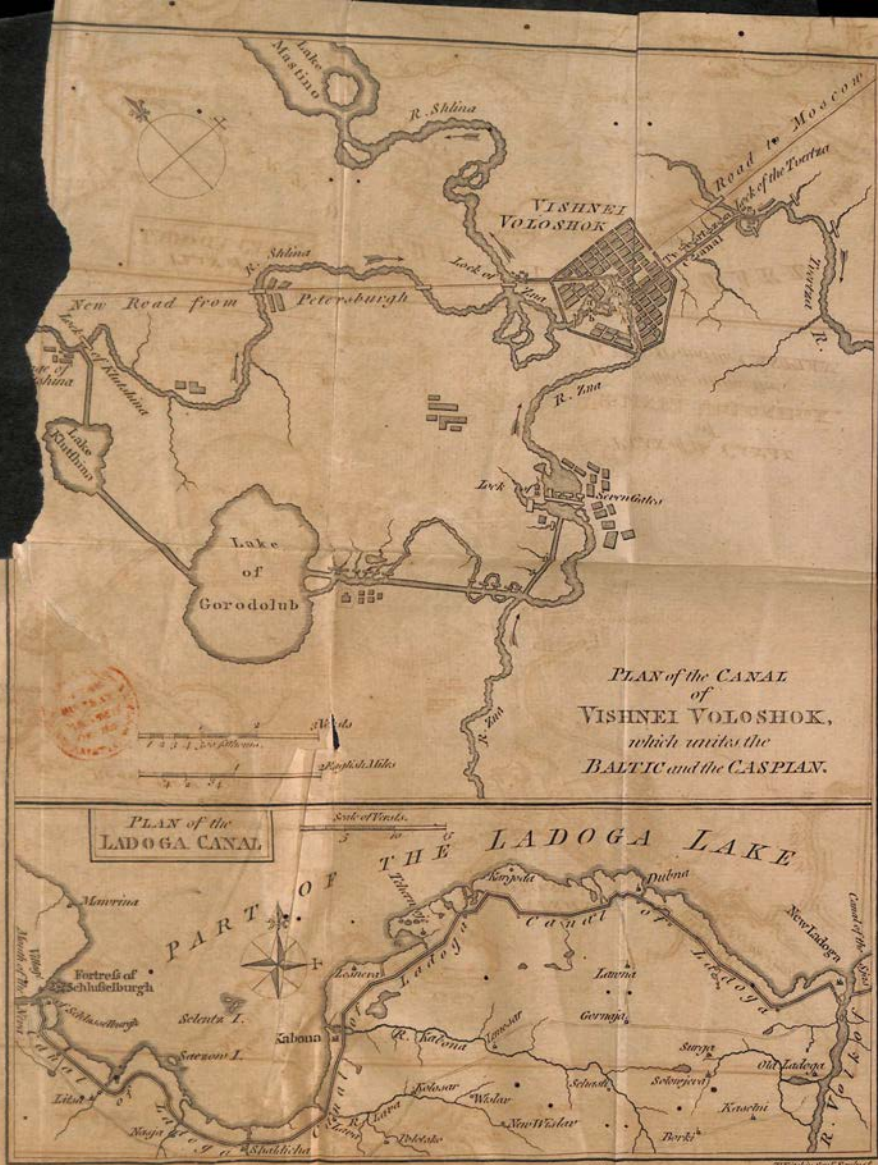
Deſcription of the canal of Viſhnèi-Voloſhok, *which unites the* Caſpian *and the* Baltic.—*Canal of* Ladoga.—*Project of uniting the* Don *and the* Volga.

THERE is no kingdom, perhaps, on the globe wherein the inland navigation is carried through ſuch an extent of country as in Ruſſia; for it is poſſible to convey goods by water 4472 miles from the frontiers of China to Peterſburgh, with an interruption only of about 60 miles *; and from Aſtracan to the ſame capital through a tract of 1434 miles, without once landing them.

The water communication between Aſtra-

* Having in a former publication (Ruſſian Diſcoveries, p. 205.) given a ſhort ſketch of the inland navigation from Tobolſk to the frontiers of China, I ſhall not repeat it here; but ſhall ſtate, in a few words, that from Tobolſk to the Volga. At Tobolſk the barks aſcend the Tobol, the Tura, and the Tigil, which riſes in the mountains ſeparating Siberia from Europe: from the Tigil the merchandize is tranſported acroſs a neck of land of about 52 miles to the Tchuſſovaia: there the merchants re-embark the goods, deſcend the Tchuſſovaia into the Kama, to its junction with the Volga a little above Caſan.

can


Lake Mastino
R. Shlina
Road to Moscow
VISHNEI VOLOSHOK
Lake of the Tvertza
Canal
Tvertza R.
R. Shlina
Lock on
Canal
New Road from Petersburgh
Lock of Mastina
Lake Chutchina
R. Ina
Lock
Seven Gates
Lake of Gorodolub
R. Ina
Miles
English Miles
PLAN of the CANAL of VISHNEI VOLOSHOK, which unites the BALTIC and the CASPIAN.
PLAN of the LADOGA CANAL
Scale of Versts.
PART OF THE LADOGA LAKE
Mauvrina
Fortress of Schlusselburgh
Schlusselburgh
Selenta I.
Saenom I.
Lithuania
Naiga
Sheltichicha
Kabona
Ladoga Canal
R. Kabona
Lodeina
Kompola
Dubna
Canal of Ivanofka
New Ladoga
Lawena
Germaja
Surpa
Old Ladoga
Selowjeva
Kosasar
Wadar
Selenda
Kenetni
R. Tosna
New Wadar
Tosna
Dobdolo
Berki
Volga
Published March 20th 1784 according to Act of Parliament by T. Cadell in the Strand
T. Kitchin Sculpt.

can and Peterſburgh, or between the Caſpian and the Baltic, is formed by means of the celebrated canal of Viſhnèi-Voloſhok; which I examined upon the ſpot; and a deſcription of which I reſerved for the preſent occaſion.

This great work, begun and completed under the reign of Peter the Great, has been ſo conſiderably improved by order of the preſent empreſs, that veſſels now reach Peterſburgh in leſs than half the time which they formerly employed.

By examining a map of Ruſſia, we find that the Tvertza joins the Volga at Tver; that the Shlina forms the lake Maſtino, which gives riſe to the Maſta; that the latter falls, after a courſe of about 234 miles, into the lake Ilmen, from which iſſues the river Volkof, and runs 130 miles to the lake Ladoga, which ſupplies the Neva: ſo that, in effect, the Shlina, the Maſta, the Volkof, and the Neva, may be conſidered as the ſame river, flowing into and through different lakes, and only changing its name at various intervals. By uniting, therefore, the Shlina which communicates with the Baltic, with the Tvertza which flows by the Volga into the Caſpian, is formed the junction of thoſe two ſeas. This junction is made by the canal of Viſhnèi-Voloſhok;

Voloſhok; where the Shlina is united to the Tvertza by the following canals and rivulets, for the relative ſituation of which I ſhall refer to the figures in the annexed plan.

Cloſe to Viſhnèi-Voloſhok, the Shlina is formed by the confluence of the two rivulets Shlina and Zna; near the latter are the ſources of the Tvertza. In order to join the Tvertza and the Zna, the following works were made under Peter the Great.

1. Near the village of Klutſhina a cut was dug to the ſmall lake of the ſame name; a ſecond to the lake of Gorodolub; and a third from thence to the Zna. 2. At the ſame village, juſt below the firſt cut, a lock of four gates was conſtructed acroſs the Shlina, in order to ſtop the courſe of that rivulet; and, by means of the ſaid cuts and lakes, to convey water to the Zna above Viſhnèi-Voloſhok. 3. But to keep this ſupply of water in reſerve, and to let as much in to the town as is judged neceſſary, a great lock of ſeven gates was built acroſs the Zna below the third cut. 4. The Zna and the Tvertza were united by a canal, beginning from the ſources of the latter; and at the end of the canal a lock was made. 5. The natural courſe of the Zna was ſhut up by two locks in the town (at *a* and *b*), one

one of which may alſo ſerve for a paſſage. 6. A canal was dug from the Zna to the Shlina, at the end of which is the lock of the Zna.

The ſeveral canals are ſupplied with water, and the veſſels are navigated from the Tvertza into the canal of the Zna, by the following operation of the locks.

The locks of Klutſhina, thoſe of *a* and *b* in the town, and that of the Zna being ſhut, the lock of the Tvertza is opened; the waters of the Zna and Shlina are conveyed through the canal of the Tvertza into that river; and the barks paſs into the Zna at Viſhnèi-Voloſhok. When a ſufficient number have been admitted, the lock of the Tvertza is ſhut; and the waters being raiſed to a certain level (which ſeldom takes more than two or three days), by means of the lock of ſeven gates, that of the Zna is opened; and the barks are gradually let down a ſmall fall, to the number of about twenty in an hour. At night the lock is ſhut. If on the following day there is ſufficient depth, the barks continue deſcending through the lock of the Zna; or, if not, they muſt remain for a day or two, until there is a ſufficient body of water collected. Having by theſe means all paſſed into the Shlina, they proceed, without interruption, through the lake

lake Maſtino to the beginning of the Maſta; where a lock has been lately conſtructed, which holds the waters of this lake in reſerve. By this reſervoir the navigation is ſo greatly facilitated; that the lock of the Zna being ſhut, and that of the Tvertza open, the latter river, which was formerly almoſt dry during ſeveral weeks, is now generally navigable, even in the midſt of ſummer, within two days after the paſſage of the barks: in ſpring, the ſupply of water, from the melting of the ſnows, is ſo conſiderable, that the locks both of the Tvertza and of the Zna are open at the ſame time.

With reſpect to the navigation of the Maſta; ſeveral rivulets falling into it are confined by locks, which being opened ſucceſſively as the barks are paſſing, fill the river, and render the ſhallows navigable; and, being again cloſed, hold perpetual reſervoirs of water for the ſame purpoſe: this operation is performed five or ſix times in the ſummer. By ſome other works lately conſtructed, a conſiderable addition of water has been obtained; and it is expected, that the Tvertza will become always navigable, and that the lock of the Maſta will only be ſhut for a ſhort time.

The boats employed on this occaſion are towed

towed by ten horſes up the Tvertza to Viſhnèi-Voloſhok, between ten and twelve miles a day; from which place they are rowed as far as Novogorod. Each bark is provided with at leaſt ten men; thoſe which are laden with hemp require twenty-two. At Noſhino and Baſſatino they change pilots, and take in ten additional men to paſs the upper and ſmall cataracts. At Apezenſkoi Radok, which ſtands at the head of the great cataracts, they procure another pilot and two aſſiſtants; and, on account of the rapidity of the current, increaſe their complement generally to ſixty men. The fall of the river is 122½ yards perpendicular in twenty miles; and the ſtream is ſo violent, that the boats not unfrequently ſhoot along this ſpace within the hour: but they are ſometimes daſhed againſt the rocks, or overſet by accident: in the year 1778 above thirty were loſt. From the foot of the great cataracts, the pilot of Viſhnèi-Voloſhok ſteers the bark 120 miles further down ſeveral ſhoals, which however have lately been conſiderably reduced, and almoſt levelled. In ſpring the veſſels can be allowed to draw 2½ feet water; in ſummer only 26 inches. In autumn the navigation from Viſhnèi-Voloſhok to Peterſburgh is performed in little more than a

month; in ſummer in three weeks; and in ſpring only a fortnight is required. In the year 1777, 3485 barks paſſed through the canal. The veſſels being ſteered down the Maſta, acroſs the lake Ilmen to Novogorod, deſcend the Volkof; and enter the Ladoga canal, a plan of which is annexed to that of Viſhnèi-Voloſhok. This canal was begun in 1718, by order of Peter I.; and was finiſhed during the reign of the empreſs Anne: it was carried at firſt only as far as the ſmall village of Kabona, to a rivulet of the ſame name, which falls into the lake to the eaſt of Schluſſelburgh; but now reaches, without interruption, from the Volkof to the Neva. Its length is 67 miles and an half; and its breadth 70 feet. Its mean depth of water in ſummer is ſeven, and in ſpring ten feet. It is ſupplied by the Volkof and eight rivulets; the latter, being received into reſervoirs, are admitted into the canal by means of flood-gates; and the ſuperfluous water is diſcharged through an equal number of openings on the oppoſite ſide. The barks enter through the ſluices of the Volkof, and go out through thoſe of Schluſſelburgh. In 1778, 4927 veſſels paſſed through the canal of Ladoga.

A ſcheme has been lately projected, to form a water

a water communication between the Ladoga and Bielo Ozero to the Duna; in order to unite the White Sea and the Baltic, and to improve the inland commerce between Archangel and Peterſburgh. The only part of this plan yet finiſhed is a ſhort cut of about ſeven miles from the Volkof to the Sjas.

The grand project of uniting the Caſpian and the Baltic with the Black Sea, by the junction of the Don and the Volga, was planned by Peter the Great. Theſe two rivers approach each other within the diſtance of 40 miles in the province of Aſtracan; and the two rivulets Iloſla and Camaſhinſka, the former whereof falls into the Don, and the latter into the Volga, are only ſeparated by an interval of about five miles. Could theſe two rivulets be made navigable, and united by a canal; the Black Sea would be joined with the Caſpian and the Baltic. With this view Peter I. ſent Perry *, an Engliſh engineer, to the ſpot: the canal was begun under his inſpection, and a cut was actually made the length of a mile and an half; but the ſcheme was dropped, from an idea that it was not practicable. Being revived, however, by the

* See Perry's State of Ruſſia.

preſent empreſs, profeſſor Lovitz was entruſted with the execution of it. Having taken a level of the ground between the Ilofla and the Camaſhinſka, he traced out the canal; and was preparing to begin the work; when, in 1774, he was wantonly murdered by the impoſtor Pugatchef. According to the plan of Lovitz, the direct diſtance between the two rivulets is only five miles; but the great difficulty would conſiſt in deepening their beds, and procuring a ſupply of water ſufficient to render them navigable. The Don, however, being only 40 miles from the Volga, and land-carriage in this country being extremely cheap and eaſy; it is imagined that the advantages reſulting from the projected canal would be ſcarcely equivalent to the expence of forming it.

CHAP.

CHAP. VIII.

Divine ſervice in the Sclavonian *and* Greek *tongue performed by the archbiſhop of* Moſcow.—*Bleſſing of the waters.*—*Public feaſt given to the populace.*—*Its melancholy concluſion.*—*Deſcription of the vapour-baths.*—*Departure from* Peterſburgh. — *Journey through* Ruſſian Finland.—*Sledges.*—*Mode of travelling.*—Wiburgh.—Frederickſham.

THE reader, in the firſt part of the preſent chapter, will meet with accounts of various ceremonies and national cuſtoms, which will follow each other in an unconnected detail, but which were too curious to be omitted.

During our ſtay at Peterſburgh, one Sunday morning, about nine o'clock, we, in company with Sir James Harris, had the honour of attending prince Potemkin to the archbiſhop of Moſcow; in order to be preſent at a Sclavonian and Greek ſervice. This learned prelate, whoſe name is Plato, received us with great politeneſs; and, at the cloſe of a ſhort converſation, conducted us into the church.

Upon his entrance the choriſters began a ſhort hymn *, which they finiſhed as he approached the ſhrine: having then ſaid a ſhort prayer, he placed himſelf upon a raiſed ſeat in the middle of the church †; and taking off his mandyas, or common garment, the attendant prieſts kiſſed his hand, while they delivered to him the different parts of the coſtly pontifical veſtments, which, in receiving, he raiſed to his lips ‡, before he inveſted himſelf with them: he alſo placed on his head a crown richly ornamented with pearls and precious ſtones. We were informed, that this dreſs is ſimilar to the imperial robe that was formerly worn by the Greek emperors of Conſtantinople, and which they permitted the ſupreme dignitaries of the church to put on at the time of divine ſervice; and the ſame attire ſtill continues to diſtinguiſh the hierarchy of the Greek church eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia from the lower orders. The archbiſhop being robed, repaired to the ſhrine

* "The Lord's name is praiſed from the riſing up of "the ſun, to the going down of the ſame." Pſalm cxiii. 3.

† The biſhops alone have the privilege of robing themſelves in the middle of the church: the common prieſts put on their eccleſiaſtical veſtments in the ſhrine.

‡ In order to kiſs the croſs, which is embroidered upon each part of the dreſs.

within

within the great folding-doors; and ſoon afterwards began the celebration of divine worſhip. Part of the ſervice was performed in the Sclavonian tongue by the different prieſts, and part by the archbiſhop in the Greek language, which he pronounced according to the accent of the modern Greeks. In conformity to the rules of the church, no organ, or any other muſical inſtrument, was introduced; but the vocal harmony, which conſiſted in hymns, was exceedingly pleaſing. Lighted tapers and incenſe ſeemed no leſs eſſential parts of their worſhip than among the Roman Catholics. Towards the concluſion of the prayers, the archbiſhop and clergy retired into the ſhrine, to receive the communion. The folding-doors were immediately ſhut, and none of the laity * at that time partook of this rite; but we, as ſtrangers, were allowed to view what paſſed through a ſide-door that had been left open for that purpoſe. The communicants ſtood during the ceremony; and the wine was, according to uſual cuſtom, mixed with warm water, the bread, which was cut into ſmall pieces, was put into the wine; and the ele-

* The laity generally receive the ſacrament once or twice in the year.

ments of both kinds were given at the ſame time in a ſpoon.

The whole ſervice laſted about an hour: the archbiſhop, having pronounced the final benediction, again ſeated himſelf in the middle of the church; diveſted himſelf of his pontifical garments; and clothed himſelf in his common robe. We then followed him to his houſe; where we found a breakfaſt, conſiſting of an eel-pye, a ſterlet, red and pickled herrings, and various ſorts of *liqueurs* and wines. After enjoying for ſome time the intelligent and entertaining converſation of the archbiſhop, who ſpoke fluently the French tongue, we made our acknowledgments, and retired.

Before our departure from the metropolis, we had an opportunity of being preſent at another religious rite of a more public nature, the Bleſſing of the Waters; which was performed on the 6th of January, O. S. January 17th, N. S. though not with its antient pomp and magnificence. This ceremony uſed to be held upon the Neva; upon which occaſion the ſovereign attended in perſon upon the ice, and all the regiments of guards were drawn out in great ſolemnity. Its pomp, though ſtill ſplendid, is now much diminiſhed. I ſhall here deſcribe

deſcribe the principal circumſtances which fell under my obſervation.

Upon the frozen ſurface of a ſmall canal, between the admiralty and the palace, was erected an octagon pavilion of wood, painted green, and ornamented with boughs of fir: it was open at the ſides, and crowned by a dome, ſupported by eight pillars. On the top was the figure of St. John with the croſs, and four paintings, repreſenting ſome of the miracles of our Saviour: in the inſide a carved image of the Holy Spirit, under the emblem of a dove, was ſuſpended, as is uſual in the ſanctuaries of the Greek churches. The floor of this edifice was carpeted, excepting a ſquare vacancy in the middle, in which an opening was cut in the ice, and a ladder let down into the water. The pavilion was encloſed by paliſadoes, adorned with boughs of fir, and the intermediate ſpace alſo covered with carpets. From one of the windows of the palace a ſcaffolding was erected, ornamented with red cloth, which reached to the extremity of the canal. At the time appointed, the empreſs appeared at the window of the palace; and the archbiſhop, who was to perform the benediction, paſſed at the head of a numerous proceſſion along the ſcaffolding into the octagon, round which

which were drawn up a few ſoldiers of each regiment quartered at Peterſburgh: after having pronounced a few prayers *, he deſcended the ladder; plunged a croſs into the water; and then ſprinkled the colours of each regiment. At the concluſion of this ceremony, the archbiſhop retired; and the people ruſhed in crowds into the octagon †; drank with eagerneſs the water; ſprinkled it upon their clothes; and carried ſome of it away for the purpoſe of purifying their houſes.

On the 6th of December we were witneſs to a very ſingular entertainment given to the public by a Ruſſian, who had acquired a large fortune by farming, during four years only, the right of vending ſpirituous liquors. Upon ſurrendering his contract, he gave, as a proof of his gratitude to the lower claſs of people, by whom he had enriched himſelf, a feaſt near the garden of the ſummer-palace, which was announced by hand-bills diſtributed through-

* The reader will find the ceremonies and prayers uſed on this occaſion in Dr. King's Rites of the Greek Church, p. 386.

† I was informed that ſome of the populace plunged into the water; and that others dipped their children into it; but as I was not myſelf witneſs to theſe circumſtances, I cannot vouch for their truth.

 out

out the city. As ſtrangers, deſirous of obſerving the national manners, we did not fail to be preſent at this carouſal, which commenced at two o'clock in the afternoon. Upon our firſt arrival, we examined the preparations. A large ſemicircular table was covered with all kinds of proviſion, piled in different ſhapes, and in the greateſt profuſion: Large ſlices of bread and caviare, dried ſturgeon, carp, and other fiſh, were ranged to a great height, in the form of pent-houſes and pyramids, and garniſhed with craw-fiſh, onions, and pickles. In different parts of the grounds were rows of caſks full of ſpirituous liquors, and ſtill larger veſſels of wine, beer, and quaſs. Among the decorations I obſerved the repreſentation of an immenſe whale in paſteboard, covered with cloth and gold and ſilver brocade, and filled in the inſide with bread, dried fiſh, and other proviſions.

All ſorts of games and diverſions were exhibited for the amuſement of the populace. At the extremity of the grounds was a large ſquare of ice well ſwept for the ſcaters; near which were two machines like the ſwinging vehicles at Bartholomew Fair. One of theſe machines conſiſted of two croſs-beams fixed horizontally

horizontally to a pole in the center by means of a pivot: from the ends of the beams hung four ſledges, in which the people ſeated themſelves, and were turned round with great velocity; the other had four wooden horſes ſuſpended from the beams, and the riders were whirled round in the like manner as their rivals in the ſledges. Beyond theſe were two ice-hills, ſimilar to thoſe which I have deſcribed on a former occaſion *, and for the ſame diverſion. Two poles, above twenty feet in height, were alſo erected, with colours flying; and at the top of each was placed a piece of money, as a prize for thoſe who could ſwarm up and ſeize it. The poles, being rubbed with oil, ſoon froze in this ſevere climate: many and tedious were the attempts of the various competitors in this ſlippery aſcent to fame. The ſcene was lively and gay; for above 40,000 perſons of both ſexes were aſſembled on the occaſion. Having thus far ſatisfied our curioſity, we found our way, not without great difficulty, through the crowd to a pavilion in the garden; where the maſter of the feaſt and ſeveral of the

* See Vol. II. Book IV. Chap. III.

nobility

nobility were aſſembled; and were regaled with a cold collation, and various ſorts of wine.

It had been preconcerted, that, upon the firing of a rocket, the people were to drink a glaſs of ſpirituous liquor; and, upon the diſcharge of a ſecond, to begin the repaſt. But the impatience of the populace anticipated the neceſſity of the ſecond ſignal; and the whole multitude was ſoon and at once in motion. The whale was the chief object of contention: within the ſpace of a few minutes he was entirely diveſted of his gaudy trappings, which became the ſpoils of his ſucceſsful invaders. They had no ſooner flead off his drapery, and ſecured the fragments of rich brocade; than they rent him into a thouſand pieces, in order to ſeize the proviſions with which his inſide was ſtored. The remaining people, who were too numerous to be all engaged in contending about the whale, were employed in uncovering the pent-houſes, and pulling down the pyramids; in conveying with one hand provender to their mouths, and with the other to their pockets. Others crowded round the caſks and hogſheads; and with great wooden ladles lapped inceſſantly wine,

wine, beer, and ſpirits. The confuſion and riot, which ſoon ſucceeded, is better conceived than deſcribed; and we thought it expedient to retire. The evening was cloſed with a ſuperb illumination of the gardens, and magnificent fire-works.

But the conſequences of this feaſt were indeed dreadful. The cold had ſuddenly increaſed with ſuch violence, that Fahrenheit's thermometer, which at mid-day ſtood only at 4, ſunk towards the cloſe of the evening to 15 below freezing point; conſequently many intoxicated perſons were frozen to death; not a few fell a ſacrifice to drunken quarrels; and others were robbed and murdered in the more retired parts of the city, as they were returning late to their homes. From a compariſon of the various reports, we had reaſon to conclude, that at leaſt 400 perſons loſt their lives upon this melancholy occaſion.

The Ruſſian baths have been deſcribed by every traveller who has given to the public any relation of this country. Inſtead of tranſcribing from the accounts of others, I ſhall relate what fell under my own immediate notice.

In one of the Ruſſian villages we entered a bathing-

bathing-houſe, and examined it with as much attention as the extreme heat would permit. It was a wooden building of one room, with ſmall windows like thoſe of the common cottages. Within an old woman was employed in preparing the bath; and as the violent ſmoke and heat rendered it ſcarcely poſſible for us to ſtay in the room for the ſpace of a minute, we took our ſtation at the door, and obſerved the proceſs. She firſt made a fire under an arch of large granite ſtones about four feet in height; and when they were ſufficiently heated, ſhe ſprinkled them at different intervals with water, which immediately flew off in vapour. She then took from the fire, by means of two ſticks, ſeveral ſmall red-hot pebbles, and put them into pails and troughs of water, which acquired thereby different degrees of warmth. In about half an hour three men entered the bath; and, taking off their clothes, remained within, while the old woman continued to throw water upon the arch of ſtones, which heated the room to a prodigious degree. They then lay down upon a ſort of table; and, having lathered their bodies with ſoap, ſhe rubbed them lightly with a bundle of twigs in full foliage. On account

account of the exceſſive heat, we were driven from the door; and ſoon afterwards the men, having their bodies quite ſuffuſed with a deep crimſon from the effects of the vapour, ruſhed out, and inſtantly plunged themſelves into the river.

Another bath which we entered near the convent of Yurief at Novogorod, being larger and more commodious, we were able to remain for ſome time ſpectators of the whole proceſs. It was a large wooden building, containing, like that juſt deſcribed, only one room; and was provided with ranges of broad benches, placed like ſteps one above the other, almoſt to the height of the cieling. Within were about twenty perſons undreſſed; ſome were lying upon the benches; ſome were ſitting; others ſtanding; ſome were waſhing their bodies with ſoap; others rubbing themſelves with ſmall branches of oak-leaves tied together like a rod; ſome were pouring hot water upon their heads, others cold water; a few, almoſt exhauſted by the heat, were ſtanding in the open air, or repeatedly plunging into the Volkof *.

I ſhall

* Travellers are too apt not to diſtinguiſh between the cuſtoms of the common people and thoſe of the nobles; often

I ſhall add on this ſubject the following account communicated to me by an Engliſh gentleman at Peterſburgh, who was ordered to bathe for his health. "The bathing-room "was ſmall and low, and contained a heap "of large ſtones piled over a fire, and two "broad benches, one near the ground, and

often imputing to the latter what is true only of the former. The Abbé de Chappe, in his account of his Journey through Siberia, has in many inſtances been guilty of this abſurdity; and the reader is led to conclude from his narrative, that the nobles bathe promiſcuouſly in public like the common people; that they are equally addicted to ſpirituous liquors; and that they are as rude and inelegant in their entertainments and behaviour; the very reverſe of which is the fact. The author of the Antidote to his Travels has not failed, with a glow of national patriotiſm, to cenſure ſuch indiſcriminate accounts. In no one inſtance has the Abbé been more erroneous than in his deſcription of the baths. After a ludicrous relation of them, he adds, "Theſe baths are in uſe all over Ruſſia; every "inhabitant of this vaſt tract of land, from the ſovereign "to the meaneſt ſubject, bathes twice a week, and in the "ſame manner. Every individual, even of the ſmalleſt "fortune, has a private bath in his own houſe, in which "the father, mother, and children ſometimes bathe all "together." And again, "The baths of the rich differ "only from thoſe of the poor people in being more clean." But ſuch ſhameful miſrepreſentations ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not to expoſe their falſity.

" the other near the cieling. Small buckets " of water being occaſionally thrown upon " the heated ſtones, filled the room with a " hot and ſuffocating vapour; which, from " its tendency to aſcend, rendered the upper " part much hotter than the lower. Having " taken off my clothes, I laid myſelf down " upon the higheſt bench; while the bath- " ing woman was preparing tubs of hot and " cold water, and continued to increaſe the " vapour in the manner above mentioned. " Having dipped a branch of twigs into the " hot water, ſhe repeatedly ſprinkled, and " then rubbed with it my whole body. In " about half an hour I removed to the lower " bench, which I found much cooler; when " the bathing-woman lathered me from head " to foot with ſoap, ſcrubbed me with flannel " for the ſpace of ten minutes; and throw- " ing ſeveral buckets of warm water over " me, till the ſoap was entirely waſhed off, " ſhe finally dried me with napkins. As I " put on my clothes in a room without a " fire, I had an opportunity of remarking, " that the cold air had little effect on my " body, though in ſo heated a ſtate; for while " I was dreſſing, I felt a glow of warmth

" which

" which continued during the whole night. " This circumſtance convinced me, that, when " the natives ruſh from the vapour-baths into " the river, or even roll in the ſnow, their " ſenſations are in no reſpect diſagreeable, nor " the effects in any degree unwholeſome."

Though the hardineſs of the Ruſſians has, with reaſon, been generally attributed to the ſudden extremes of heat and cold, which they experience on theſe occaſions; yet other cauſes are not wanting that may concur to this effect. The peaſants change their dreſs without the leaſt attention to the variation of the ſeaſons; on the ſame day they wear only their coarſe ſhirts and drawers, or are clad in the warmeſt clothing. They are totally unacquainted with the luxury of beds; ſleeping either upon the tops of their ſtoves, or on the bare floor, ſometimes in their clothes, and at other times almoſt naked. Their cottages alſo are rendered exceedingly hot, from the number of perſons crowded into a ſmall ſpace, and from the ſtoves, which are almoſt always heated, even in the midſt of ſummer; ſo that when they go out, it is like iſſuing from a warm bath into the open air. The children are not tenderly nurtured, but are equally inured from their earlieſt infancy to the moſt oppoſite ex-

tremes. We ſeldom, indeed, paſſed through a village, in which we did not obſerve ſeveral running about the ſtreets; and others, who were ſcarcely able to crawl, ſtanding or lying near the doors of the cottages, with no other covering than their ſhirts, even in rainy or froſty weather. Thus the natives are uſed to ſudden changes of heat and cold, and accuſtomed from their infancy to the hardieſt kind of life.

On the evening of the 3d of February 1779, we took our departure from Peterſburgh, and, travelling all night, arrived on the following day at Wiburgh. I took the following precautions to guard againſt the cold. I had on a ſuit of Bath-drugget lined with flannel; two pair of worſted ſtockings; ſlippers, over which I drew boots well ſecured with flannel and fur: theſe boots I generally wore in the carriage, but pulled off when I entered a houſe. If the weather had proved uncommonly ſevere, I was provided with a kind of ſheep-ſkin caſe, with the wool on the inſide, for each of my legs, which reached to my waiſt, and was large enough to incloſe my boots. I wrapped round my body a great coat of blue nankeen, lined with lamb-ſkin; and occaſionally added a large *peliſſe*, or fur robe.

robe. I had a bear's-ſkin muff; and my head was enveloped in a black velvet cap, quilted with ſilk and cotton, which covered my cheeks, was tied under my chin, and might, if neceſſary, be drawn over the face. Thus accoutred, I could venture to defy even the cold of Lapland, whither our courſe was directed.

Our train conſiſted of eight ſledges, including thoſe appropriated to the baggage; as, on account of the narrowneſs of the roads, each perſon had a ſeparate carriage. There are various kinds of ſledges uſed for travelling in this country: ſome are entirely cloſe; others quite open; thoſe which we employed were partly open, and partly covered. A ſledge of this ſort is ſhaped like a cradle; its tilt, which riſes from the hinder extremity, and projects to about two feet, was open in front, but provided with curtains, which might be drawn and tied together whenever the weather was ſevere *. The outſide was ſecured with matting and oil-ſkin; and the inſide with coarſe cloth. Within was a mattraſs, feather-bed, and coverlid, or quilt of coarſe cloth.

* The reader will ſee the form of a ſledge in the background of the engraving of the Ruſſian peaſant, in Vol. II.

In this travelling couch I ſometimes lay extended at full length; ſometimes ſat croſs-legged like a Turk; and at other times raiſed myſelf on a ſeat formed by two cuſhions. Each ſledge was drawn by two horſes, which, on account of the narrowneſs of the roads, were harneſſed one before the other. The uſual rate of travelling is from ſix to eight miles in the hour. The motion of the carriage over the beaten ſnow was ſo eaſy, as to be almoſt imperceptible; and I never performed any journey in a more commodious manner. Though we continued our route during the night, and there was no moon; yet an *Aurora Borealis*, and the whiteneſs of the ſnow, ſupplied an agreeable ſpecies of twilight. The road, or rather path, through which our route lay, was ſcarcely more than a yard in breadth, ſunk two or three feet beneath the level of the ſnow, and hardened by the repeated preſſure of the horſes and ſledges. When two carriages met in this narrow track; the horſes, which turned out of the way, ſunk into the ſoft untrodden ſnow as high as their girths.

Feb. 4. Upon our arrival at Wiburgh about noon, we were conducted, by the governor's recommendation, to the houſe of a merchant, who

who entertained us in the moſt hoſpitable manner.

Ruſſian Finland, which formerly belonged to the Swedes, was partly ceded to the Ruſſians by the peace of Nyſtadt in 1721, and partly at the treaty of Abo in 1743. This province retains moſt of its antient privileges, with ſome occaſional modifications, which have been neceſſarily introduced under the new government. The country produces, beſide paſture, rye, oats, and barley, but not ſufficient for the inhabitants. Wiburgh retains its own civil and criminal courts of juſtice: in penal caſes, not capital, the puniſhments preſcribed by the provincial judicature are inflicted; but whenever a criminal is condemned to death, the Ruſſian laws interpoſe, and, reprieving him from the ſentence of beheading or hanging, as enjoined by the Swediſh code, conſign him to the knoot and tranſportation to Siberia. In the governor's court, buſineſs is tranſacted in the Swediſh, German, and Ruſſian tongues: the peaſants talk only the Finniſh dialect; but the inhabitants of the towns underſtand alſo Swediſh, and many of them German. The Lutheran is the eſtabliſhed religion of the province; but the Greek worſhip has been lately

introduced by the Ruſſians. The Lutheran clergy, conſidering the cheapneſs of proviſions, and the ſmall progreſs which luxury has made in this country, enjoy ſalaries not inadequate to their ſtations, ſome of their benefices amounting to £. 200 per annum, and the loweſt to £. 120.

Wiburgh, the capital of Ruſſian Finland, is a fortified town, and contains about 9000 inhabitants; a few houſes are conſtructed with brick, but the greateſt part are of wood. The principal commerce of the province is carried on at this place. The merchant, in whoſe houſe we were lodged, informed me, that the exports, the greateſt part of which are purchaſed by the Engliſh, are planks, tallow, pitch, and tar; and the imports, which are moſtly ſupplied from France and Holland, wine, ſpices, and ſalt; that in 1778, 99 ſhips arrived there, of which 65 were Engliſh.

Feb. 5. Having received an invitation to dinner from the governor, we repaired to his houſe at one o'clock, and partook of an elegant repaſt, at the concluſion of which we returned to our lodgings; and having paid our warmeſt thanks (for he would accept no other acknowledgements) to our hoſpitable landlord, we quitted Wiburgh, and purſued

our

our journey through the night. In our route we did not once experience the leaſt delay for want of horſes; the governor having, with that polite attention which marked his character, ſent previous orders, that relays ſhould be ready for us at every poſt. The country through which we paſſed was a ſucceſſion of hill and dale, abounding with foreſts of fir and beech, interſperſed with numerous lakes, and thickly overſpread with ſhattered fragments of granite, which looked like the wrecks of mountains. There was no moon, nor even the ſmalleſt gleam of an *Aurora Borealis*, yet the ſnow caſt a ſtrong light; and our train of ſledges made a very pictureſque appearance, as they winded round the whitened hills; pierced into the thick foreſts; or extended in a ſtraight line along the frozen ſurface of the lakes. During our courſe, the ſtill ſilence of the night was frequently relieved by the carols of our drivers, who ſang the moſt ſimple and pleaſing airs. In this progreſs I beguiled the length of the journey, either by liſtening to their ſongs echoed by the ſurrounding foreſts; by admiring the unuſual caſt of the nocturnal ſcenery; or by ſlumbering in my travelling couch as comfortably as in a bed. The weather was uncommonly warm

warm for the ſeaſon of the year, the mercury in the thermometer ſcarcely deſcending at midnight more than three degrees below freezing point.

Feb. 6. We arrived about nine in the morning at Frederickſhamn; and took up our lodging at an inn, where we met with very comfortable accommodations.

Frederickſhamn, when in the poſſeſſion of the Swedes, was only a ſmall village, but has been fortified by the Ruſſians, for the purpoſe of ſecuring the diſtrict in Finland, which was ceded to them at the peace of Abo. The town is ſmall and regular: in the centre is a ſquare, from which the ſtreets extend at right angles. The houſes, excepting one of brick, are all built of wood, but in the neateſt manner. The fortifications are very ſtrong: the garriſon and ſeveral companies of ſoldiers, quartered in the neighbouring villages, amount to about 6000 troops. The inhabitants carry on a ſmall commerce with England and Holland; export planks and tallow; and import ſalt and tobacco.

The governor of Wiburgh having previouſly diſpatched a letter of recommendation in our favour to the commander of the garriſon of Frederickſhamn; the latter, accompa-

Scorodomof del. *Teigel sculpsit.*

A FIN PEASANT selling GAME.

Published according to Act of Parliament. Jun.ʳ 1784. by T. Cadell. in the Strand.

nied with the officers of his corps, honoured us with a viſit immediately upon our arrival, and invited us to dinner. Theſe marks of attention and hoſpitality are always pleaſing to travellers in a foreign country; but were greatly enhanced in ſuch a ſeaſon of drearineſs. Our hoſt, an old German officer, who had ſeen much ſervice, and poſſeſſed all that liberal frankneſs generally conſpicuous in veterans, enlivened an excellent entertainment with the vivacity of his converſation. The floors of the apartments, inſtead of being covered with carpets, were, according to a cuſtom not unuſual in theſe parts, ſtrewed with leaves and ſmall twigs of pines and firs; which afford, when bruiſed, a pleaſant ſmell, and give a cleanly appearance to the rooms.

Feb. 7. From Frederickſhamn we continued our journey through a hilly country abounding with foreſts and lakes, and in about 34 miles arrived at the frontiers of this empire.

The peaſants of Finland differ widely from the Ruſſians in their look and dreſs: they had for the moſt part fair complexions, and many of them red hair: they ſhave their beards, wear their hair parted at the top, and hanging to a conſiderable length over their ſhoulders.

ders *. We could not avoid remarking, that they were in general more civilized than the Ruſſians; and that even in the ſmalleſt villages we were able to procure much better accommodations, than we uſually met with in the largeſt towns which we had hitherto viſited in this empire. The inhabitants of this province enjoy conſiderable privileges, and profeſs a different religion: how far theſe circumſtances may render them more enlightened than the Ruſſians is a curious queſtion, which cannot be anſwered by us who continued in the country during ſo ſhort a time.

* The Ruſſians have generally dark complexions and hair: they alſo wear their beards, and cut their hair ſhort.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX, N° 1.

LIST of the RUSSIAN NAVY in October 1778.

SHIPS of the Line.

	Names.	Guns.	Station.	When built.
1	EZEKIEL -	- 80 —	Cronſtadt	- 1773
2	Iſidor -	- 74 —	Ditto	- 1772
3	St. Andrew -	- 74 —	Ditto	- 1770
4	Clement -	- 74 —	Ditto	- 1770
5	Tcheſmè -	- 74 —	Ditto	- 1770
6	Vladimir -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1771
7	Vekeſlaf - -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1771
8	De Neiſs -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1772
9	America -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1773
10	Periſlaf -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1772
11	Vſevolod -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1769
12	Demitri Donſki	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1771
13	Pam and Euſtatia	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1770
14	Victor -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1771
15	Europa -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1768
16	Saratof -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1765
17	Pobeda -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1770
18	Ratiſlof -	- 66 —	Ditto	- 1769

19 Miranoſitz

	Names.	Guns.	Station.	When built.
19	Miranofitz - -	66 —	Cronſtadt -	1771
20	Pobidnaſovitz, rebuilding	66 —	At Cronſtadt	
21	Count Orlof - -	66 —	Revel -	1770
22	Alexander - -	66 —	Ditto -	1772
23	Boris and Glebb -	66 —	Ditto. -	1773
24	Ingermanland - -	66 —	Ditto -	1773
25	Aſia - - -	66 —	Ditto -	1773
26	Unknown - -	66 —	Cronſtadt -	1777
27	Ditto - -	66 —	Ditto -	1777
28	Ditto - -	66 —	Ditto -	1777
29	Ditto - -	66 —	Ditto -	1777
30	Ditto - -	66 —	Ditto -	1777

SHIPS of the Line ready to launch, and building.

31	Ready to launch -	74 —	Peterſburgh
32	Ditto - -	74 —	Ditto
33	Building - -	74 —	Ditto
34	Ready to launch -	66 —	Ditto
35	Building - -	66 —	Ditto
36	Ditto - -	66 —	Ditto
37	Ditto - -	66 —	Ditto
38	Ditto - -	66 —	Ditto

FRIGATES.

	Names.	Guns.	Station.	When built.
1	St. Michael - -	32 —	Cronſtadt	1774
2	Kaſlevoi - -	32 —	Ditto -	1774
3	Leeſkoi - -	32 —	Ditto -	1773
4	Poſpeſkoi - -	32 —	Ditto -	1774
5	Bohemia - -	32 —	Ditto -	1774
6	Hungaria - -	32 —	Ditto -	1774
7	Nordeſkoi - -	32 —	Ditto -	1769
8	Euſtatia - -	32 —	Ditto -	1768
9	Pomoſknoi - -	32 —	Ditto -	1768

FRIGATES

FRIGATES ready to launch, and building.

10	Ready to launch	28	— Peterſburgh
11	St. Mark	20	— Ditto
12	Ready to launch	20	— Ditto
13	Building	20	— Archangel
14	Building	20	— Ditto
15	Building	20	— Ditto

Frames: 1. Elephant, 36 guns; 2. unknown, 36; 3. Leopold, 18; 4. Barſa, 18.

Gallies: 101 at Peterſburgh; 3 at Cronſtadt; and 5 at Revel.

APPENDIX, N° 2.

GOODS exported in 382 Britiſh ſhips in 1777.

Quantity.		Value. £.	s.
1,283,279 Poods *	of Iron	365,324	12
1,104,299	Clean hemp	353,375	12
92,950	Outſhot ditto	27,885	0
32,735	Half clean ditto	9,165	16
84,008	Codilla ditto	13,441	1
209,902	12 head flax	100,753	0
25,470	9 head flax	10,697	8
4,396	6 head flax	1,582	8
36,627	Codilla ditto	4,395	4
1,373	Iſinglaſs	8,238	0
13,514	Briſtles	24,325	4
8,774	Hides	10,528	16

* A pood = 36 Engliſh pounds.

Quantity.

Quantity.			Value. £.	s.
2,546	Poods of	Wax - -	6,110	8
271,273		Tallow - -	119,360	0
21,525		Old iron - -	1,722	0
1,157		Feathers - -	925	12
70,838		Tar * - -	7,083	16
2,683		Pitch - -	402	8
1,473		Roſin - -	441	16
2,987		Cordage - -	1,194	16
359		Horſehair - -	143	12
42	32lb.	Rhubarb - -	846	8
3	3lb.	Beaver cod - -	590	8
152,834	Arſhines †	Broad diaper - -	3,362	5
337,683		Narrow ditto - -	5,402	16
82,155		Broad linen - -	1,838	4
1,602,716		Narrow ditto -	22,438	0
1,168,440		Craſh - -	5,842	4
847,290		Drillings - -	23,724	0
23,429	Pieces of	Fleems - -	37,598	8
56,644		Ravenducks -	67,972	16
1,505		Sail-cloth - -	2,107	0
3,500		White fox-ſkins -	1,400	0
5,000		Hare-ſkins - -	200	0
18,454	Tchetwert ‡	Linſeed - -	11,072	8
17,986		Wheat - -	14,388	16
157,083	Deals are about 80,000 dozen		24,000	0
155	Poods of	Potaſh - -	77	8
499		Carraway ſeeds -	149	12

* Before our unhappy diſputes with our Colonies, we uſed to procure our pitch and tar from America. In 1776 we firſt imported theſe commodities from Ruſſia. They were ſold at firſt for only 1 *s.* the pood; but in 1777, tar ſold for 2 *s.* and pitch at 3 *s.* the pood.

† An arſhine = 28 inches.

‡ A tchetwert contains 5¾ buſhels Wincheſter meaſure.

Quantity

Quantity.			Value. £.	s.
226	Poods of	Anniſeed - -	90	8
37,817		Old rags, old ropes, goat ſkins, and oxen bones - -	312	0
2	22 lb.	Raw ſilk - - -	57	12
52		Linſeed oil - - -	15	12
10,424		Horſe-tails, about 200 pood - -	200	0
78		Maſts and bowſprits, and wax-candles -	1,044	0
205	Poods of	Fox-ſkin bags and weaſel-ſkin bags -	832	0
312		Hare-ſkin bags and ſkins of ſquirrels	15	12
20		Ermine ſkins -	60	0
14,370		Ermine tails, and ſable tails, and mats	214	0
57	Poods of	Caviar - -	34	4
1,413	Arſhines	Checked linen - -	21	4
			£. 1,293,010	14
Cuſtoms on exportation		£. 107,176 0	171,826	12
Shipping charges 5 per cent.		64,650 12		
			1,464,837	6
Commiſſion 3 per cent.		-	43,945	0
Total ſum of exports by Britiſh ſhips		- -	£. 1,508,782	6

GOODS imported by Britiſh Ships at Peterſburgh in 1777.

Quantity.			Value. £.	s.
2,154	Poods of	Alum	775	8
214		Benzoin	2,565	0
8,080		Brimſtone	685	12
11,482		Campeachy wood	4,592	16
579		Cheeſe	706	4
126		Cochineal	5,040	0
1,288		Coffee	2,060	16
15		Confectionary	61	16
		Copper wrought and unwrought	120	8
978		Cork	660	0
6		Coral	500	0
108		Gum arabic	129	16
1,560		Indigo	24,961	4
58,804		Lead	21,169	8
568		Muſtard	1,362	12
524		Oil	623	16
46		Olibanum	92	0
1,420		Pepper	3,418	16
37		Pewter	96	12
22½		Plates of gold and ſilver	7,507	0
608		Rice	243	12
54		Sugar refined	896	8
683		Ditto raw		
499		Sal ammoniac	1,636	4
15,874		Tin	25,398	8
60		Tobacco and ſnuff	182	8
98		Verdigreaſe	393	12
206,816	Arſhines	Bays	20,956	12

Quantity.

Quantity.			Value. £.	s.
100,494	Arſhines	Calimancoes and cam-blets - -	7,034	12
32,412	-	Camblets - -	6,880	8
164,205		Cottons for printing	7,225	0
7,132		Cloth fine - }	55,642	12
162,007		ordinary - } -		
144,125		Cotton, velvets, vel-verets, &c. - -	17,364	0
45,995		Druggets - -	3,219	12
9,828		Flannels - - -	589	12
16,225		Phlug and ſhag -	1,986	0
365,896		Shalloons - - -	24,881	12
137,895		Tabouretts - -	9,652	16
		Clothes ready made	344	4
		Hats - -	215	8
		Linen and printed handkerchiefs -	342	16
		Muſlin and cambric	1,108	0
		Quilting - -	2,853	0
		Ribbands - - -	133	0
		Stockings - -	1,787	0
		Sundry ſilk ſtuffs -	1,333	0
		Sundry woollen ditto	2,131	0
		Toys and millinery -	9,490	8
		Butter -	16	12
		Capers - -	1	8
		Coals - -	2,033	12
		Cheſnuts - -	68	0
		Chryſtal - -	190	4
		Currants, raiſins, and figs - -	384	8
		Cutlery and hardware	19,181	16
		Diamonds and pre-cious ſtones -	5,596	0

	Value £.	s.
Earthen ware -	5,890	12
Fans - -	20	16
Frames for pictures	82	16
Furniture - -	312	4
Furs - -	40	0
Hops - -	24	0
Lace and ruffles -	452	12
Leather dreſſed and undreſſed -	519	4
Mathematical inſtruments - -	1,458	0
Muſical inſtruments	451	16
Mohair - -	45	16
Nuts - -	45	8
Olives - -	1	0
Paper hangings -	258	8
Pearls - -	1,000	0
Pencils and black lead	674	0
Pictures and copper-plates - -	3,605	8
Pickles - -	37	12
Pork and hams -	57	8
Printed books - -	607	0
Prunes - -	94	0
Stoughton's drops -	13	4
Stone and marble -	822	0
Snuff-boxes - -	241	12
Tea - -	35	0
Tutinage - -	141	0
Whips and walking ſticks - -	108	16
Wine and mineral water - -	434	0

Wood

Quantity.			Value. £.	s.
		Wood for coaches, furniture, &c. - -	2,070	0
131		Horſes - -	2,920	0
38		Dogs - -	132	12
27,316	Pieces of	Beaver ſkins - -	27,316	0
239,967		Bottles - -	2,380	8
3,282	Hogſheads	Burton ale - -	26,255	0
61		Coaches and harneſs -	2,084	4
		Clocks and watches -	11,142	16
193	Dozen	Cyder - -	154	16
195	Anchors of	French brandy -	781	16
3,556	Cheſts of	Oranges and lemons -	5,817	12
10,703		Otter ſkins - -	14,844	4
116	Reams of	Paper - -	45	4
13	Anchors of	Shrub and rum -	98	8
61	Hogſheads of	Vinegar - -	147	16
		Sundry drugs and colours - -	865	0
		Sundry ſmall articles -	590	16
		£.	423,942	12

APPENDIX, N° 3.

STATE of the RUSSIAN ARMY, 1785.

1 Regiment horſe guards.
3 Ditto foot guards.
Preobraſkinſky.
Iſmoilofsky.
Semenofsky.

This corps is called 10,000 men, but does not exceed 3,000, and probably never will.

1ſt Diviſion.—St. PETERSBURGH and PLESCOF.

1 Field Marſhal.
1 General in Chief.
4 Lieutenant Generals.
7 Major Generals.

	Number of men and officers.
1 Regiment, carabiniers. Pleſcof	942
1 Ditto, dragoons. St. Peterſburgh	1,872
Total cavalry	2,814

INFANTRY.

INFANTRY.

		Number of men, officers included.
2 Regiments, grenadiers.		
	Life grenadiers - -	4,188
	Sophiiſk - - - -	4,188
		8,376
14 Field regiments.		
	Revel - - - - - -	2,094
	Beloverſkoy.	14
	Pleſverſkoy.	29,316
	Koporſkoy.	
	Archangel.	
	Navaginſk.	
	Reſan.	
	Velikolutſki.	
	Tinguinſk.	
	Narva.	
	Kexholm.	
	Nevſſky.	
	Staroſkolſk.	
	Negomſk.	
	Total 1ſt diviſion - -	40,506

2d Diviſion—UKRAINE.

1 Field Marſhal.
1 General in Chief.
3 Lieutenant Generals.
5 Major Generals.

		Number of men, officers included.
1 Regiment, cuiraſſiers.		
	St. George	743
10 Regiments, carabiniers.		
	Kiof	942
	Tchernigof.	10
	Severſk.	9,429
	Glukof,	
	Sophiiſk.	
	Lubenſkoy.	
	Tver.	
	Neyjnſk.	
	Staradubſk.	
	Perejoiloff.	
6 Regiments, light horſe.		
	Achtiurſk	1,083
	Kaſkoff.	6
	Sumſk.	6,498
	Oſtrogjſk.	
	Duteroniſk.	
	Soniſk.	
	Total cavalry	16,669
7 Regiments, infantry.		
	Tomſk	2,094
	Sief.	7
	Brianſk.	
	Elitz. Total infantry	14,658
	Riga.	
	Suzdolſky.	
	Polotſkoy.	
	Total 2d diviſion	31,318

3d Diviſion.

3d Diviſion.—MOSCOW.

1 General in Chief.
2 Lieutenant Generals.
4 Major Generals.

		Number of men, officers included.
2 Regiments, carabiniers.		
Moſcow	942	
Roſtof	942	
		1,884
1 Regiment, cuiraſſiers.		
Cazan		742
Total of cavalry		2,626
7 Regiments, infantry.		
St. Peterſburgh, Grenadiers	4,188	
Moſcow, Grenadiers	4,188	
	8,376	
Pennſkoy	2,094	
Yaroſlaf.	5	
	10,470	
Alinopolſk.		
Toola.		
Caſan.		
Total infantry		18,846
Total infantry and cavalry, 3d diviſion		21,472

4th Diviſion.—EKATERINOSLAF and CRIMEA.

1 Field Marſhal.
1 General in Chief.
5 Lieutenant Generals.
11 Major Generals.

		Number of men, officers included.	
1 Regiment, cuiraſſiers.			
	Ekaterinoſlaf - - -	742	
1 Regiment, carabiniers.			
	Reſan - - - - -	942	
			1,684.
9 Regiments, light horſe.			
	Paulogratz - - - -	1,083	
	Marinpolſk.	9	
	Alexandriiſk.		9,747.
	Olivinpolſk.		
	Kherſon.		
	Conſtantinogratz.		
	Tamiginſk.		
	Pultava.		
	Iſiamſk.		
	Total cavalry -		11,431

INFANTRY.

11 Regiments.			
Ekaterinoſlaf -	- -	4,188	
Tauritza - -	grenadiers.	4	
Phanagoriſk -			
Kioff - - -		16,752	
Orloff - - - - - -		2,094	
Koſloff.		7	
Vialſkoy.			
Kurſk.		14,658	
Tambof.			
Taurichetz.	Total infantry -		31,410.
Troitzk.			
	Total 4th, diviſion - -		42,841

CORPS

CORPS cantoned from Aſtracan to Tiflis, making part of the 4th diviſion, commanded by

1 Lieutenant General.
5 Major Generals.

		Number of men, officers included.
2 Regiments, dragoons.		
	Aſtracan	1,872
	Taganrock	1,872
		3,744
9 Regiments, infantry.		
	Aſtracan, grenadiers	4,188
	Kunitſk	2,094
	Kabardinia.	8
	Moſcow.	16,752
	Selenginſkoy.	
	Nizof.	
	Niezſhnie-novogorod.	
	Butuirſkoy.	
	Voronetz.	
	Total	24,684

5th Diviſion.—NOVOGOROD.

1 General in Chief.
1 Lieutenant General.
2 Major Generals.

1 Regiment, cuiraſſiers.		
	Great Duke's	742
1 Regiment, carabiniers.		
	Kargopolſk	942
		1,684

4 Regiments,

		Number of men, officers included.
4 Regiments, infantry.		
	Novogorod	2,094
	Siburg	4
	Schluſſelburgh.	8,376
	Tobolſk.	
	Total 5th diviſion -	10,060

6th Diviſion. — VALODIMER and VORONETZ.

1 General in Chief.
1 Lieutenant General.
4 Major Generals.

2 Regiments, carabiniers.		
	Jugermanland	942
	Narva	942
2 Regiments, dragoons		
	Niſhnie-novogorod	1,872
	Volodimir	1,872
4 Regiments, infantry.		
	Shirvan	2,094
	Roſtof.	4
	Apekeronſkoy.	8,376
	Azof	
	Total 6th diviſion	14,004

7th Diviſion. — SMOLENSKO.

1 General in Chief.
1 Lieutenant General.
3 Major Generals.

1 Regiment,

			Number of men, officers included.
1 Regiment, life cuiraſſiers			742
2 Regiments, carabiniers.			
	Jamburgh	} 942	= 1,884
	Riga	}	
4 Regiments, infantry.			
	Siberia, grenadiers		4,188
	Smolenſko	2,094	
	Uglits.	3	
	Ingermanland.		6,282
	Total 7th diviſion		13,096

8th Diviſion. — TAMBAF.

1 General in Chief.
1 Lieutenant General.
2 Major Generals.

1 Regiment, light horſe.			
	Elizabethgratz		1,083
4 Regiments, infantry.			
	Troitzk	2,094	
	Lodago.	4	
	Volodimer.		8,376
	Maromſk.		
	Total		9,459

9th Diviſion. — WHITE RUSSIA.

1 General in Chief.
1 Lieutenant General.
1 Major General.

2 Regiments,

			Number of men, officers included.
2 Regiments, dragoons.			
	Smolenſko - -	1,872 =	3,744
	Kinburn - -		
4 Regiments, infantry.			
	Dnuperopſkoy -		
	Polotſkoy - -	2,094 =	8,376
	Tſchernigoff -		
	Vologolſkoy - -	Total	12,120

10th Diviſion.—ORENBURG.

1 Lieutenant General.
2 Major Generals.

3 Regiments, light horſe.			
	Voronetz - -		
	Pſiumſk - -	1,083 =	3,249
	Ukraine - -		
2 Battalions, infantry.			
	Orenburg - -	1,046 =	2,092
	Tſchernogratz -		
	Total - -		5,341

CORPS of SIBERIA.

1 Lieutenant General.
2 Major Generals.

1 Regiment, dragoons.			
	Siberia - -	- -	1,872
2 Battalions, infantry.			
	Ekaterinenburg -	1,046 =	2,092
	Semiupolſk - -		
	Total - -		3,964

LIGHT

LIGHT TROOPS.

12 Regiments, regular Coſſacks, of 942 men - 11,304
irregular ditto, divided into regiments of 500 each from the Don and the Yaic or Ural (ſince Pugatchef's revolt) called Uralian Coſſacks—Number not to be aſcertained.

Kalmucks—The ſame.

2 Battalions, grenadiers.

Kharcofs - -	1 2	1,047	=	2,094

8 Battalions, Fuſileers.

Moſcow - -	4	1,026	=	8,208
Kharkoff - -	4			

24 Battalions, Chaſſeurs.

Tauritchitz -	4	990	=	23,760
Caucaſus - -	4			
Livonia - -	4			
Bog - - -	4			
Beloruſky - -	4			
Finland - -	4			

45,366

RECAPI-

RECAPITULATION.

	Cavalry.		Infantry.	Artillery.
1st Diviſion - - -	2,814	—	29,316	
2 - - -	16,660	—	14,658	
3 - - -	2,626	—	18,846	
4 - - -	11,431	—	31,410	
Lieut. Gen. Potemkin's corps - -	3,744	—	20,940	
5 - - -	1,684	—	8,376	
6 - - -	5,628	—	8,376	
7 - - -	2,626	—	10,470	
8 - - -	1,083	—	8,376	
9 - - -	3,744	—	12,120	
10 - - -	3,249	—	2,092	
Corps of Siberia -	1,872	—	2,092	
Light troops, regular -	11,034	—	34,062	
Irregular - -	—	—	—	
Artillery - -	—	—	34,000	
	68,465		235,134	

To this may be added 98 garriſon battalions of different eſtabliſhments, conſiſting of recruits and invalids, mixed, which do the duty of the places, no field regiment, excepting four for the garriſon of Peterſburgh, and two for that of Riga, being employed in that line. The artillery has eleven garriſon battalions for the ſame purpoſe.

APPENDIX, N° 4.

Geographical Diviſion of the Ruſſian Empire into Governments, Provinces, and Diſtricts.

AS the new diviſion of Ruſſia into governments, provinces, and diſtricts, has totally altered the geography of that vaſt empire; and as no accurate account of the general diviſion yet given to the public has fallen under my obſervation, I ſhall here ſubjoin a liſt communicated to me in February, 1785, from undoubted authority.

In comparing this liſt of governments with that given in p. 341 of this work, the reader will find a difference in the number and names of the governments; for inſtance, this liſt enumerates 41, the other 40 governments. This liſt mentions the governments of Archangel, Catherinenſlaf, Olonetz, and Caucaſus; and the other thoſe of Aſtracan, Azof, and New Ruſſia. But this difference may eaſily be reconciled, by conſidering that the former liſt was made in 1782, the latter in 1784, when ſeveral alterations had taken place in the names of the governments, particularly that Olonetz was formerly included in the government of Novogorod, and Archangel in that of Vologda, from which they have been ſince ſeparated; and that the names of New Ruſſia and of Azof have been changed for that of Ecatherinenſlaf; and that the government of Caucaſus has been lately added, and comprizes the government of Aſtracan.

Preſent Diviſion of the Ruſſian Empire into Governments, Provinces, and Diſtricts.

FORTY-ONE GOVERNMENTS.

I. Government of St. Peterſburgh.

This government compriſes that tract of country called Ingermanland, or Ingria, wreſted by Peter the Great from the Swedes, and confirmed to Ruſſia at the peace of Nyſtadt, in 1721.

IT IS DIVIDED INTO 10 DISTRICTS.

1. St. Peterſburgh.
2. Oranienbaum, on the gulf of Finland.
3. Yſamburgh, on the river Luga, diſcharging itſelf into the gulf of Finland.
4. Luga, on the upper part of the ſame river.
5. Narva, on the river Narova, which falls into the gulf of Finland.
6. Gvoſ, near the eaſt ſide of lake Peipus, on a rivulet called Gvoſka.
7. Rokeſtven, or Rokeſtvenſk, on the rivulet Oredeſh, falling into the Luga.
8. Sophia, near Zarſkoe Zelo.
9. Schluſſelburgh, on the Neva, where this river iſſues from the Ladoga.
10. New Ladoga, on the river Volkhof, between the lake and the channel of the Ladoga.

II. Government of Olonetz,

Formerly included in the government of Novogorod,

CONTAINS 5 DISTRICTS.

1. Petroſavodſk, on the river Schu[illegible], falling into the lake Onega.
2. Olonetz, on the river Olonza, falling into the eaſt ſide of the Ladoga.
3. Vytegra, on the river of the ſame name, falling into the ſouth ſide of the Onega.
4. Kargopol,

4. Kargopol, near the river Onega, at its origin from the lake Latcha.
5. Povenetz, on the north ſide of the Onega, where the rapid rivulet Povenetz falls into it.

III. Government of Wiburgh, or Ruſſian Finland.

This government was formerly ſubject to Sweden, and comprized in Carelia; part was ceded to Ruſſia at the peace of Nyſtadt, in 1721, and part by the treaty of Abo, 1741.

IT CONTAINS 6 DISTRICTS.

1. Wiburgh, on the north ſide of the gulf of Finland.
2. Willmanſtrand, near the lake Saima.
3. Fredericſham, on the gulf of Finland.
4. Nyſlot, near the lake Utruſs.
5. Kexholm, on two ſmall iſlands of the river Woxen, falling into the Ladoga.
6. Serdobol, on the north-weſtern ſide of the Ladoga.

IV. Government of Revel, or Eſthonia.

Revel was confirmed to the Swedes at the peace of Oliva, conquered by Peter the Great in 1710, and finally ceded to Ruſſia in 1721.

IT CONTAINS 5 DISTRICTS.

1. Revel, on the Baltic ſea.
2. Baltic-Port, about 40 verſts weſtward from Revel.
3. Habſal, or Hapſal, a maritime town.
4. Weiſſenſtein, on the rivulet Saida, about 80 verſts from Revel.
5. Weſenberg, about 100 verſts from Revel, at about an equal diſtance from that town and Narva.

V. Government of Riga, or Livonia, ceded to Ruſſia in 1721.

IT CONTAINS 9 DISTRICTS.

1. Riga, on the Duna, 14 verſts from its mouth.
2. Wenden, on the river Aa.

3. Wolmar, on the ſame river.
4. Wall, on a rivulet falling into the ſouth ſide of lake Wyrtz.
5. Werro, on the weſt ſide of lake Peipus.
6. Dorpt, on the river Em, or Embak, which iſſues from the lake Wyrtz, and falls into the Peipus.
7. Fellin, on the ſmall river of the ſame name.
8. Perneau, on the river of that name, near the Baltic Sea.
9. Arenſburgh, on the iſland Oeſel.

VI. Government of Pſkof,

Formerly a republic, ſubdued by Vaſſili Ivanovitch, and formerly compriſed in the government of Novogorod.

CONTAINS 9 DISTRICTS.

1. Pſkof, called by foreigners Pleſkof, on the river Velika, or Velikaia.
2. Petchora, on the rivulet Simſha, falling into the ſouth part of the Peipus, or the lake of Pſkof.
3. Oſtrof, or Oſtroſſk, on an iſland of the river Velika.
4. Opotchka, on an iſland of the ſame river.
5. Novorſhef, on an iſland of the ſmall lake Padzo, through which flows the river Velikaia.
6. Velikie Luki, on the left ſide of the river Lovat, falling into the lake Ilmen.
7. Toropez, on the river Toropa, falling into the Duna.
8. Kholm, on the river Lovat.
9. Porkhof, on the river Schelef.

VII. Government of Novogorod,

A powerful republic, finally reduced by Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. and united to the Ruſſian empire,

CONTAINS 10 DISTRICTS.

1. Novogorod, on the river Volkhof, near the lake Ilmen.
2. Kreſtetz, on the river Khlova, falling into the Miſta.
3. Staraia Ruſſa, on the river Poliſh, about 15 verſts ſouth of the Ilmen.
4. Valdai, on the weſt ſide of the lake of Valdai.
5. Borovitchi,

5. Borovitchi, on the river Mſta.
6. Tikhvin, on the rivulet of that name, falling into the Siaſs, which diſcharges itſelf into the Ladoga.
7. Uſtiuſhna, on the Mologa, falling into the Volga.
8. Tcherepovetz, on the river Schekſna, falling into the Volga.
9. Kirilof, on the ſame river.
10. Bieloſerſk, on the ſouth ſide of the Bieloſero, near the river Schekſna.

VIII. Government of Tver,

An independent principality, united to the Ruſſian empire by Ivan Vaſſilievitch, and compriſed in the government of Novogorod. It was ſeparated from Novogorod, and was the firſt government eſtabliſhed upon the new plan.

CONTAINS 13 DISTRICTS.

1. Tver, on the Volga, where that river is joined by the Tverza.
2. Vyſhnèi Volotchok, on the river Zna.
3. Torſhok, on the Tverza.
4. Oſtachkof, on an iſland of the lake Seliger.
5. Rſhef-Volodimerof, on the left ſide of the Volga.
6. Subzof, on the left ſide of the ſame river.
7. Staritza, on the Volga.
8. Kraſnoi Kholm, on the river Schoca, which falls into the Mologa.
9. Koliaſin, on the Volga.
10. Kakin, near the Volga.
11. Beſhetzk, on the Mologa.
12. Kortchera, or Kortchef, on the Volga.
13. Veſiegouſk, on the river Mologa.

IX. Government of Smolenſko,

After being an object of contention, and reciprocally poſſeſſed by Poland and Ruſſia, was conquered by Alexey Michaelovitch in 1654, and finally ceded to Ruſſia at the peace of Moſcow, in 1666,

CONTAINS 12 DISTRICTS.

1. Smolenſko, on both ſides of the Dnieper.
2. Peretchie, on the river Kaſplia, falling into the Duna.
3. Dukortchina, on the Dnieper.
4. Bieloi, on the ſmall river Vobiſha, falling into the Meſha, which diſcharges itſelf into the Duna.
5. Sytcherſk, on the river Vaſuſa, falling into the Volga.
6. Gſhatſk, or Gſhat, on the river Gſhat, falling into the Vaſuſa.
7. Viaſma, on the river Viaſma, falling into the Dnieper.
8. Dorogobuſh, on the Dnieper.
9. Yukhnof, on the Ugra, falling into the Occa.
10. Felna, on the Deſna.
11. Roſtarl, on the Oſter, which falls into the Soſh.
12. Kraſnoi, on a rivulet which falls into the Dnieper.

X. Government of Polotſk,

Diſmembered from Poland by the Treaty of Partition in 1772,

CONTAINS 11 DISTRICTS.

1. Polotſk, on the Duna, at the mouth of the ſmall river Polota.
2. Driſſa, or Dryſin, on the river Driſſa, falling into the Duna.
3. Dunaburgh, on the right ſide of the Duna.
4. Reſitza, on the rivulet Reſiza, or Roſitten, falling into the lake Liubahn.
5. Liutzin, on the river Liſha, which falls into the river Velikaja.
6. Sebeſh, on the lake Sebeſh.
7. Nevel, on the lake Nevel.
8. Vifebſk, on the Duna.
9. Gorodetzk, or Gorodok, on a rivulet falling into the Duna.
10. Veliſh, on the Duna.
11. Suraſh, on the Duna.

XI. Government of Mohilef,

Diſmembered alſo by the Treaty of Partition in 1772,

CONTAINS

CONTAINS 11 DISTRICTS.

1. Mohilef, on the Dnieper.
2. Kopyfs, on the Dnieper.
3. Orfha, on the Dnieper.
4. Sennoi, near lake Sennoie, communicating with the Duna.
5. Babinovitchi, on the river Lutchoffa, falling into the Duna.
6. Mifhiflaf, on the river Vokra, falling into the Soſh.
7. Klimovitchi, on the river Oſter, falling into the Soſh.
8. Tſchaufy, on the river Pronja, falling into the Soſh.
9. Staroi Bykhof, on the Dnieper.
10. Rogatchef, near the Poliſh frontiers, where the river Drutz, or Drugez, falls into the Dnieper.
11. Belitzy, on a rivulet falling into the Soſh.

XII. Government of Orel,

Once a province of the government of Bielgorod,

CONTAINS 13 DISTRICTS.

1. Orel, on the rivers Occa and Orel.
2. Kromy, on the Occa.
3. Mzenſk, on the rivulets Suſha and Mezna, falling into the Occa.
4. Bolkof, on the river Nugra, falling into the Occa.
5. Livny, on the left ſide of the river Soſſna, falling into the Don.
6. Feletz, on the left ſide of the river Soſſna.
7. Sieffk, on the river Sief, falling into the Deſna.
8. Maloi Arkhangelſk, on the river Soſſna.
9. Dmitroffk, on the rivulet Neruſer, falling into the Sief.
10. Dechkin, on the Occa.
11. Trubtcheffk, on the left ſide of the Deſna.
12. Branſk, on the Deſna.
13. Karatchef, on the rivulet Sneſet, falling into the Deſna.

XIII. Government of Kaluga,

Formerly a province in the government of Moſcow,

CONTAINS 12 DISTRICTS.

1. Kaluga, on the Occa.
2. Maloiaroſlavetz, on the ſmall river Luſha, falling into the Occa.
3. Barovſk, on the river Protva, falling into the Occa.
4. Taruſſa, on the Occa.
5. Likhvin, on the left ſide of the Occa.
6. Koſelſk, on the left ſide of the ſmall river Shiſdra, falling into the Occa.
7. Medynſk, on a rivulet falling into the Ugra.
8. Peremyſchl, on the left ſide of the Occa.
9. Mechovſk, on a rivulet falling into the Shiſdra.
10. Moſſalſk, on a ſmall river falling into the Ugra.
11. Serpeiſk, on the ſmall river Serpei, falling into the Ugra.
12. Shiſdra, on the river of the ſame name.

XIV. Government of Moſcow,

One of the moſt antient and moſt conſpicuous provinces of the Ruſſian empire. Its capital, Moſcow, built in 1147, was the reſidence of the ſovereign, till Peter the Great transferred the ſeat of empire to Peterſburgh;

CONTAINS 15 DISTRICTS.

1. Moſcow, on the river Moſcva, falling into the Occa.
2. Kolomna Moſcva, about 5 verſts from its junction with the Occa.
3. Bronnitzy, on the Moſcva, between Moſcow and Kolomna.
4. Podol, or Podolſk, on the river Pakria, falling into the Moſcva.
5. Nikitſk, on the ſame river.
6. Serpukhof, on the river Nara, 4 verſts from its junction with the Occa.
7. Vereia, on the river Protva, falling into the Occa.
8. Moſhaiſk, on the ſmall river Moſhaika, falling into the Moſcva.
9. Ruſa, on the left ſide of the river Ruſa, falling into the Moſcva.
10. Voſkreſenk, on the river Iſter, falling into the Moſcva.
11. Svenigorod, on the Moſcva, near the mouth of the Iſter.
12. Volok-

12. Voloklamſkoi, or Volokolampſk, on the river Lama, falling into the Schoſha, which diſcharges itſelf into the Volga.
13. Klin, on the river Seſtra, falling into the Dubnia, which joins the Volga.
14. Dmitrof, on the ſmall river Vakhroma, which, uniting with the Seſtra, forms the river Dubnia.
15. Bogorodſk, on the river Kliaſma.

XV. Government of Tula,

Formerly a province of the government of Moſcow,

CONTAINS 12 DISTRICTS.

1. Tula, on the river Upa, falling into the Occa.
2. Krapirna, on the ſame river.
3. Odeief, on the ſame river.
4. Venef, on the rivulet Venefka, falling into the Oſſetr, which joins the Occa.
5. Alexin, on the Occa.
6. Kachira, on the ſame river.
7. Bagoroditzk, on the river Upa.
8. Tſchern, on the rivulet of the ſame name, falling into the Suſha, which flows into the Occa.
9. Novoſyl, on the rivulet Nerutcha, falling into the Suſha.
10. Bielef, on the Occa.
11. Epiphan, on the Don.
12. Ephremof, or Yephremof, on the river Metcha, falling into the Don.

XVI. Government of Reſan,

Formerly a province of the government of Moſcow,

CONTAINS 12 DISTRICTS.

1. Reſan, on the Truſheſh, falling into the Occa.
2. Saraiſn, on the river Oſetr.
3. Pronſk, on the river Pronca, falling into the Occa.
4. Mikhailof, on the river Pronca.
5. Skopin, on the ſmall river Ranvf, falling into the Occa.
6. Riachk, on a rivulet falling into the Voroneſk.
7. Kaſſimof,

7. Kaſſimof, on the Occa.
8. Haninburgh, on the river Reſe, falling into the Voroneſh.
9. Spaſk, on the Occa.
10. Yegorief, or Yegorjeſſk, on a ſmall river falling into the Occa.
11. Sapoſhok, on a river falling into the Occa.
12. Donkof, or Dankof, on the Don.

XVII. Government of Volodimir,

Formerly a province of the government of Moſcow,

CONTAINS 14 DISTRICTS.

1. Volodimir, or Vladimir, on the river Kliaſma.
2. Suſdal, on a rivulet falling into the Kliaſma.
3. Yurief Polſkoi, on a ſmall river falling into the Kliaſma.
4. Alexandrof, or Alexandroffk, on the river Schernia, falling into the Kliaſma.
5. Kovrof, on the river Kliaſma.
6. Pokrof, on the ſame river.
7. Gorokhovetzk, on the ſame river.
8. Sudogda, on a river of the ſame name, falling into the Kliaſma.
9. Viaſniki, on the river Kliaſma.
10. Murom, on the Occa.
11. Pereſlavl Saleſkoi, on the rivulet Trubeſh, falling into the lake of Pereſlavl.
12. Schuia, on the river Teſs, falling into the Kliaſma.
13. Kirſhatch, on a rivulet falling into the Kliaſma.
14. Melenki, on the ſmall river Unſha, falling into the Occa.

XVIII. Government of Yaroſlaf,

Formerly a province of the government of Moſcow,

CONTAINS 12 DISTRICTS.

1. Yaroſlaf, on the Volga, where the river Kotoroſl falls into it.
2. Roſtof, on the north ſide of the ſmall lake Nero, called therefore likewiſe the lake of Roſtof, communicating with the Volga by the river Kotoroſl.
3. Bariſſoglebſk,

3. Bariſſoglebſk, on the Volga.
4. Romanof, on the Volga, oppoſite to the laſt-mentioned town.
5. Danilof, on a rivulet falling into the Volga.
6. Liubim, on the river Negra, falling into the Kaſtroma.
7. Pocheckhon, or Pochekhonie, on the river Sagoſha, falling into the Schekſna.
8. Uglitch, on the Volga.
9. Rybnoi, on the Volga.
10. Mychkin, on the Volga.
11. Petroſſk, on a ſmall river falling into the lake Nero.
12. Mologa, on the Volga.

XIX. Government of Vologda,

Formerly the largeſt of all the Ruſſian European governments, as it contained the provinces of Vologda, Archangel, and Veliki-Uſtiug.

This government is divided into two provinces, Vologda and Veliki-Uſtiug.

Province of Vologda,

CONTAINS 5 DISTRICTS.

1. Vologda, on the river Vologda, falling into the Sukhona.
2. Griaſovetz, on a river falling into the Sukhona.
3. Kadnikof, on a river falling likewiſe into the Sukhona.
4. Totma, on the left ſide of the Sukhona.
5. Veleſk, or Velſk, on the river Vaga.

Province of Veliki-Uſtiug,

CONTAINS 7 DISTRICTS.

1. Uſtiug Veliki, on the river Sukhona.
2. Nikolſk, on a rivulet falling into the Sukhona.
3. Lalſk, on the ſmall river Liala, falling into the Luſa.
4. Solvytchegodſk, or Solivytchegodſk, on the river Vytchegda.
5. Kraſnoborſk, on the left ſide of the Dvina.
6. Yarenſk,

6. Yarenſk, on the right ſide of the Vytchegda, where it takes in the ſmall river Yarenga.
7. Uſtſyſolk, on the river Syſſol, falling about a verſt below this town into the Vytchegda.

XX. Government of Archangel,

Formerly included in the government of Vologda,

CONTAINS 7 DISTRICTS.

1. Archangel, on the Dvina, about 70 verſts from its mouth.
2. Kholmogory, on the Dvina.
3. Schenkurſk, on the river Vaga.
4. Pineg, on the right ſide of the Dvina, where the river Pinega falls into it.
5. Onega, on the river Onega, in Ruſſian Lapland.
6. Kola, on the river Kola, near the Bay of Kola, in the Frozen Ocean.
7. Meſen, on the river Meſen, falling into the Frozen Sea.

XXI. Government of Koſtroma,

Formerly included in the government of Moſcow,

Two provinces,

A. Koſtroma, B. Unſha,

CONTAINS 11 DISTRICTS.

1. Koſtroma, near the mouth of the Volga.
2. Nerechta, on a rivulet falling into the Volga.
3. Pleſs, on the Volga.
4. Kadyi, on a rivulet falling into the Volga.
5. Bui, on the river Koſtroma, where it takes in the river Vara.
6. Galitch, on the lake of that name, communicating with the river Koſtroma by the ſmall rivulet Vara.
7. Tchukhloma, near a lake of the ſame name.
8. Solgalitzk, on the Koſtroma.
9. Kinechma, on the Volga.
10. Yuricvetz Povolſskvi, on the Volga, three verſts below the mouth of the Unſha.
11. Lukh, on a river falling into the Volga.

B. Province

B. Province of Unſha,

CONTAINS 3 DISTRICTS.

1. Makarief, on the Unſha.
2. Varnovin, on the river Vetluga.
3. Vetluga, on the ſame river.

XXII. Government of Niſhnei Novogorod,

CONTAINS 13 DISTRICTS.

1. Niſhnei Novogorod, on the Volga, below the mouth of the Occa.
2. Balakhna, on the right ſide of the Volga.
3. Arſamas, on the ſmall river Teſha, falling into the Occa.
4. Makarief, on the Volga.
5. Vaſſil, on the Volga.
6. Semenof, on the rivulet Kerſhenz, falling into the Volga.
7. Ardatof, on the river Teſh, falling into the Occa.
8. Gorbatof, on the Occa.
9. Sergatch, on the river Piana, falling into the Sura.
10. Perevoſs, on the ſame river.
11. Kniaginin, on a rivulet falling into the Volga.
12. Lykaianof, on the upper part of the Teſh.
13. Potchinki, on the river Alator, falling into the Sura.

XXIII. Government of Kaſan,

Conquered from the Tartars by Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. in 1552,

CONTAINS 13 DISTRICTS.

1. Kaſan, on the rivulet Caſanka, falling into the Volga.
2. Sviaſk, on the river Sviaga, a few verſts from its junction with the Volga.
3. Arſk, on the river Kaſanka.
4. Zyvilſk, on the river Zyvil, falling into the Volga.
5. Tſchebaxar, on the Volga, near the mouth of the rivulet Tſchebaxarka.
6. Yadrin, on the river Sura.
7. Kuſmodemianſk, on the Volga.

8. Tzarevo-

8. Tzarevokokchaiſk, on a rivulet Malaia Kokchaga, falling into the Volga.
9. Tetiuki, on the Volga.
10. Laikef, on the river Kama.
11. Spaſk, on the Volga.
12. Tchiſzopolſk, on the Kama.
13. Mamadyſh, on the Viatka, falling into the Kama.

XXIV. Government of Simbirſk,

Formerly a province of the kingdom of Kaſan,

CONTAINS 13 DISTRICTS.

1. Simbirſk, or Sinbirſk, on the Volga.
2. Singilief, on the Volga.
3. Stavropal, on the Volga.
4. Samara, near the junction of the Volga and Samara.
5. Siſran, on the Volga, where it takes in the ſmall river Siſran.
6. Kanadei, on the river Siſran.
7. Tagai, on a rivulet falling into the Sviaga.
8. Buinſk, on the river Sviaga.
9. Karſun, on a ſmall river falling into the Sura.
10. Kotiakof, on the right ſide of the river Sura.
11. Ardatof, on the Alator.
12. Alatoc, on the Sura, where it takes in the Alator.
13. Kurmyk, on the Sura.

XXV. Government of Penza,

Formerly a province of Kaſan,

CONTAINS 13 DISTRICTS.

1. Penza, on the river Sura, where it receives the rivulet Penſa.
2. Mokchainſk, weſt of Penza.
3. Inſara, on the river Inſara, falling into the Mokcha.
4. Verkhnei Lomof, on the river Lomof.
5. Niſhnie Lomof, on the ſame river.
6. Narovtchat, on a rivulet falling into the Mokcha, which joins the Occa.
7. Troitzk, on the Mokcha.
8. Kraſnoſlobodſk, on the ſame river.

9. Scheckeief, on a rivulet falling into the Alator.
10. Saranſk, on another rivulet falling into the Alator.
11. Goroditch, on a rivulet falling into the Sura.
12. Kerenſk, on a rivulet falling into the Mokcha.
13. Tchembar, on the ſmall river Tchembar, falling into the Vorona, which flows to the Khoper.

XXVI. Government of Tanbof,

Formerly part of the government of Voronetz,

CONTAINS 13 DISTRICTS.

1. Tambof, on the river Zna, which falls into the Mokcha.
2. Schatſk, on the rivulet Schat, falling into the Zna.
3. Kadom, on the river Mokcha.
4. Temnikof, on the ſame river.
5. Iclatma, on the Occa.
6. Koſlof, on the rivulet Uſnoi Voronetz.
7. Uſſman, on the ſmall river Uſſman, falling into the Voronetz.
8. Lebedian, on the Don.
9. Boriſſoglebſk, on the Khoper.
10. Morca, on the Zna.
11. Spaſk, on a rivulet falling into the Mokcha.
12. Kirſſanof, on the Vorona, falling into the Khoper.
13. Lipetzk, on the Voronetz.

XXVII. Government of Voronetz,

CONTAINS 15 DISTRICTS.

1. Voronetz, on the river Voroneſh, about 14 verſts from its junction with the Don.
2. Sadonſk, on the Don.
3. Semlianſk, on a rivulet falling into the Don.
4. Niſhnedevitzk, on the rivulet Devitza, falling into the Don.
5. Korotoian, on the Don.
6. Bobrof, on the Biliuk, falling into the Don.
7. Birutch, on the river Soſna, falling into the Don.
8. Oſtrogoſchk, on a rivulet falling into the Soſna.
9. Pavlovſk, on the Don.
10. Kalitva,

10. Kalitva, on the rivulet Kalitva, falling into the Don.
11. Bogutchar, on a rivulet of the ſame name, falling into the Don.
12. Bielovodſk, on the river Derkul, falling into the Donek.
13. Valuiki, on the river Oſkol, where it receives the rivulet Valui.
14. Livenſk, on the rivulet Valui.
15. Kupenſk, on the river Oſkol.

XXVIII. Government of Kurſk,

Formerly part of the government of Bielgorod,

CONTAINS 15 DISTRICTS.

1. Kurſk, on the river Tukor, falling into the river Seim, or Sem.
2. Lgof, on the Seim.
3. Rylſk, on the ſame river.
4. Pretive, on the ſame river.
5. Fateſh, on a rivulet falling into the Svopa.
6. Tchigry, on a rivulet falling into the Tim.
7. Tim, on the river of the ſame name, falling into the Soſna.
8. Oboian, on the river Pſol.
9. Sudſha, on a rivulet of the ſame name, falling into the Pſol.
10. Bogatoi, on the rivulet Penna, falling into the Pſol.
11. Dmitrief, on the Svopa.
12. Bielgorod, on the Donetz.
13. Korotcha, on the rivulet of that name, falling into the Donetz.
14. Novoi Oſkol, on the Oſkol.
15. Staroi Oſkol, on a river of that name.

XXIX. Government of Novogorod Severſkoi,

Part of the Ukraine, or Little Ruſſia,

CONTAINS 11 DISTRICTS.

1. Novogorod Severſkoi, on the right ſhore of the Deſna.
2. Pogar, on the Sudoſh, falling into the Deſna.
3. Mglin,

3. Mglin, on a rivulet falling into the Ipul.
4. Starodub, on a rivulet falling into the Sudoſh.
5. Soſnitza, on the Deſna.
6. Korop, on the left ſhore of the ſame river.
7. Korolevetz, on a rivulet falling into the Deſna.
8. Glukhof, on the river Yeſma, falling into the Seim.
9. Konotop, on a rivulet falling into the Seim.
10. Suraſh, or Suraſhſk, on the Ipul.
11. Novomeſhſk, on the ſame river.

XXX. Government of Tchernigof,

Formerly part of the Ukraine,

CONTAINS 11 DISTRICTS.

1. Tchernigof, on the right ſhore of the Deſna.
2. Bereſna, or Bereſin, on the Deſna.
3. Gorodnizk, on a rivulet falling into the Snof, which joins the Soſna.
4. Neſhin, on the Oſter, falling into the Deſna.
5. Romen, or Romna, on the river Sula.
6. Glinſk, on the ſame river.
7. Priluki, on the Udai, falling into the Sula.
8. Borſna, on a rivulet of the ſame name, falling into the Deſna.
9. Lokhvitza, on the river Sula.
10. Gaditch, on the Pſol.
11. Senkof, on a rivulet falling into the Pſol.

XXXI. Government of Kiof,

Being part of the Ukraine, or Little Ruſſia, was once a dutchy belonging to the great dukes, and Kiof, the capital, was their principal reſidence. This country was conquered by the Tartars, came again into the poſſeſſion of the great dukes, but was over-ran and poſſeſſed by the Coſſacs, under the protection of Poland.

In 1654, the natives, diſcontented with John Caſimir, king of Poland, ſubmitted to Ruſſia, and have ever ſince continued ſubject to that empire. The vaſt privileges enjoyed by the natives have been gradually aboliſhed, and they

are now reduced to the ſame ſtate as the other provinces of the Ruſſian empire.

CONTAINS 11 DISTRICTS.

1. Kiof, on the Dnieper.
2. Oſter, on the Deſna.
3. Koſelatz, on the Oſter.
4. Piriatin, on the Udai.
5. Periaſlaf, on the Trubeſh, falling into the Dnieper.
6. Solotonok, on a rivulet of the ſame name, falling into the Dnieper.
7. Lubny, on the river Sula.
8. Khorol, on the river of the ſame name, falling into the Pſol.
9. Mirgorod, on the ſame river.
10. Goltva, on the Pſol.
11. Goroditche, on the Dnieper.

XXXII. Government of Kharkof,

Formerly compriſed in the government of Ukrania Slovodſkaia,

CONTAINS 15 DISTRICTS.

1. Kharkof, on the Uda, falling into the Donetz.
2. Tchuguief, on the Donetz.
3. Iſium, on the ſame river.
4. Woltchanſk, on a rivulet falling into the Donetz.
5. Solatchef, on the Uda.
6. Walki, on a rivulet falling into the Donetz.
7. Bogodukhof, on the Merlo, falling into the Vorſkla.
8. Kraſnokutſk, on the ſame river.
9. Akhtyrka, on the rivulet Akhtyrka, falling into the left ſhore of the Worſkla.
10. Khotmyſk, on the Vorſkla.
11. Lebedin, on a rivulet Oltchanka, falling into the Pſol.
12. Sumy, on the right ſhore of the Pſol.
13. Miropolie, on the ſame river.
14. Nedrigailof, on the river Sula.
15. Bielopolie, on a rivulet falling into the Seim.

XXXIII. Govern-

XXXIII. Government of Catherinenſlaf, or Ecaterrinenſlaf.

This government contains the greateſt part of that territory which was wreſted by the preſent empreſs from the Turks, and compriſes New Ruſſia, the former government of Azof, and Crim Tartary.

It is divided into the two provinces of Catherinenſlaf and Taurida.

Province of Catherinenſlaf,

CONTAINS 14 DISTRICTS.

1. Catherinenſlaf, on the Dnieper.
2. Poltava, on the Vorſkla.
3. Krementchuk, on the Dnieper.
4. Eliſabethgrad, on the Ingul, falling into the Bug.
5. Alexandria, on the Inguletz, falling into the Dnieper.
6. Kherſon, on the Dnieper, about 14 verſts below the mouth of the Inguletz.
7. Stavenſk, on the Dnieper.
8. Novomoſkorſk, on the Dnieper.
9. Pavlograd, on a river falling into the Dnieper.
10. Mariupal, on a river near the ſea of Aſof.
11. Bakhmuh, on the river of that name, falling into the Donetz.
12. Donetzk, on the river Donetz.
13. Conſtantinograd, on the Orel, falling into the Dnieper.
14. Alexopolſk, on the ſame river.

Province of Taurida, or Crim Tartary.

This fertile peninſula, the great mart of commerce in the Black Sea, was colonized for the purpoſes of trade by the Greeks, Romans, Genoeſe, occupied by the Turks under Mahomet the Second, and governed by the Khan of the Tartars, a vaſſal to the Porte. On the peace of Kainardi, in 1774, it was declared an independent ſovereignty, taken poſſeſſion of by Catharine II. on the abdication of the Khan Sahim Gerai, in 1783, and con-

firmed to Ruſſia by the Porte in the ſame year by the treaty of Conſtantinople. The empreſs has revived ſeveral of the ancient Greek names.

CONTAINS 7 DISTRICTS.

1. Levkopol, formerly Achmet-ſchitt.
2. Synpheropol, formerly Eſki Krim, i. e. Old Crimea.
3. Eupatoria, formerly Koſlof, or Gofleve.
4. Perekop.
5. Phanagoria, on the iſland of Taman.
6. Dneprovſk, on the Dnieper.
7. Melotopol, on the river Melotchnie.

XXXIV. Government of Caucaſus,

Divided into two provinces, Aſtracan and Caucaſus, but not yet ſubdivided into diſtricts.

Aſtracan was conquered from the Tartars, in 1552, by Ivan Vaſſilievitch.

Province of Caucaſus,

Will compriſe the Cuban, and all that diſtrict to the eaſt and ſouth, now in the poſſeſſion of Ruſſia, between the rivers Don and Cuban, and between the Caſpian and the Euxine, extending as far as the confines of Georgia, and continually augmenting by the reduction and ſubmiſſion of the wandering hordes of Mount Caucaſus.

XXXV. Government of Saratof,

Formerly a province of Aſtracan,

CONTAINS 11 DISTRICTS.

1. Saratof, on the Volga.
2. Volſk, on the ſame river.
3. Khvalynſk, on the ſame river.
4. Kuſnetzk, on a rivulet falling into the Sura.
5. Serdobſk, on the river Serdoba, falling into the Khoper.
6. Petroſſk, on the Medveditza.

7. Atkar, ör Atkarſk, on the river Atkara, falling into the Medreditza.
8. Balakef, on the river Khoper.
9. Khoperſk, formerly Novokhoperſk, on the ſame river.
10. Kamychin, called formerly Dmitrefſk, on the right ſide of the Volga.
11. Tzaritzyn, on the Volga.

XXXVI. Government of Ufa,

Formerly included in the government of Orenburgh, is divided into two provinces, Ufa and Orenburgh.

Province of Ufa,

CONTAINS 9 DISTRICTS.

1. Ufa, on the right ſide of the Bielaia, a few verſts beneath the mouth of the river Ufa.
2. Birſk, on the river Bielaia.
3. Menſclinſk, on the river Menſel, falling into the Ik.
4. Bugulm, or Bugulminſk, on the Bugulm, a rivulet falling into the Ik.
5. Bogoroſtan, on a river falling into the Samara.
6. Belebeief, on a rivulet falling into the Diema, which flows into the Bielaia.
7. Sterlitamak, on the ſmall river Sterlia, falling into the Bielaia.
8. Ichalyabinſk, on the river Mijap.
9. Troitzk, on the river Ui.

Province of Orenburgh,

CONTAINS 4 DISTRICTS.

1. Orenburgh, on the Ural, formerly the Yaïk.
2. Verkhouralſk, on the Ural.
3. Buſulutzk, on the Samara, near the river Buſuluk.
4. Sergieſſk, on the river Samara.

XXXVII. Government of Viatka,

Formerly a province of Caſan,

CONTAINS 13 DISTRICTS.

1. Viatka, formerly Khlynof, on the Viatka.
2. Slobodſk, on the Viatka.

 3. Katelnitch,

3. Katelnitch, on the Viatka.
4. Orlof, on the Viatka.
5. Faranſk, on a rivulet falling into the Viatka.
6. Nolinſk, on the Voia, falling into the Viatka.
7. Glaſof, on a river falling into the Viatka.
8. Urſhum, on the Viatka.
9. Malmych, on the ſame river.
10. Tzarevoſantchurſk, on the river Kokchaia, falling into the Volga.
11. Sarapul, on the Kama.
12. Felabug, on the ſame river.
13. Kai, on the ſame river.

XXXVIII. Government of Perm,

Formerly a province of Caſan,

Contains Two provinces.

A. Province of Perm. B. Province of Catharinenburgh.

CONTAINS 8 DISTRICTS.

1. Perm, on the Kama, where the river Zegochekha falls into it.
2. Solkamſk, on the ſmall river Uſſolka, falling into the Kama.
3. Tcherdyn, on the river Kolva, falling into the Victera.
4. Obvinſk, on the Kama, near the mouth of the Obva.
5. Okhanſk, or Akhanſk, on the Kama.
6. Oſſa, on the left ſhore of the Kama, where it receives the rivulet Oſſinka.
7. Kraſnoufimſk, on the Ufa.
8. Kungur, on the river Sylva.

B. Province of Catharinenburgh, or Echaterinenburgh,

Formerly included in the government of Tobolſk,

CONTAINS 7 DISTRICTS.

1. Catharinenburgh, on the river Iſſet, not far from its origin.
2. Schadrinſk, on the left ſhore of the Iſſet.

3. Dolmatof, on the left ſhore of the Iſſet.
4. Kamychloſſk, on the river Pychma.
5. Irbitz, on the ſmall river Irbit, falling into the Nitza.
6. Alapaieſſk, on the ſmall river Alapeikha, falling into the Neiva.
7. Verkhoturie, on the Tura.

XXXIX. Government of Tobolſk,

Comprehends the weſtern part of Siberia, the conqueſt of which country, began by Yermac Timofeef, in 1579, during the reign of Ivan Vaſſilievitch II. was finally concluded before the death of Feodor Ivanovitch, in 1598.

It is divided into the two provinces of Tobolſk and Tomſk.

Province of Tobolſk,

CONTAINS 10 DISTRICTS.

1. Tobolſk, on the Irtyſh, oppoſite to the mouth of the Tobol.
2. Tiumen, on the Tura.
3. Turinſk, on the Tura.
4. Bereſof on the Soſſva, falling into the Ob.
5. Surgut, on the Oby.
6. Tara, on the Irtyſh.
7. Yalutoroſk, on the Tobol.
8. Kurgan, on the river Kurgan.
9. Ichimſk, on the river Ichim.
10. Omſk, on the Irtyſh, near the mouth of the Om.

Province of Tomſk,

CONTAINS 6 DISTRICTS.

1. Tomſk, on the river Tom.
2. Kainſk, on the river Om.
3. Narym, on the Oby, below the mouth of the Ker.
4. Mangaſeia, or Turukhanſk, on the Yeniſei.
5. Yeniſeiſk, on the river Yeniſei.
6. Atchinſk, on the river Tchulym, falling into the Ob.

XL. Govern-

XL. Government of Kolyvan,

Formerly included in the government of Tobolſk,

CONTAINS 5 DISTRICTS.

1. Kolyvan, the new capital of this government, on the Oby, near the mouth of the Berda, known before the inſtitution of this government under the name of *Berdſkoi Oſtrog*.
2. Semipalat, on the Irtyſh.
3. Biiſk, on the river Bi, or Biia, which, by uniting with the Katunia, forms the river Oby.
4. Kuſnezk, on the river Tom, oppoſite to the mouth of the Kondoma.
5. Kraſſnoiarſk, on the Yeniſei, where it receives the Katcha.

XLI. Government of Irkutzk,

The largeſt and leaſt peopled government in Ruſſia, compriſes all the eaſtern part of Siberia, from the Northern Ocean to the frontiers of Chineſe Tartary, and from the boundaries of the government of Tobolſk to the Eaſtern Ocean. This large territory was gradually conquered and appropriated by the Ruſſians in their deſultory excurſions from Tobolſk.

It is divided into the four provinces of Irkutzk, Nertſhiuſk, Yakutſk, and Okotzk.

Province of Irkutzk,

CONTAINS 4 DISTRICTS.

1. Irkutzk, on the Angara, oppoſite to the mouth of the river Irkut.
2. Kirenſk, on the Lena, above the mouth of the Kirenga.
3. Niſhnie-Udinſk, on the river Uda, falling into the Upper Tunguſka.
4. Verſhnei-Vedinſk, on the river Vecla, falling into the Selenga.

Province

Province of Nertchinſk,

CONTAINS 4 DISTRICTS.

1. Nertchinſk, on the Nertcha, falling into the Schilka.
2. Doroninſk, on the Ingoda.
3. Barguſinſk, on the river Barguſin, falling into the lake Baikal.
4. Stretinſk, on the Schilka.

Province of Yakutſk,

CONTAINS 5 DISTRICTS.

1. Yakutſk, on the Lena.
2. Olekminſk, on the Lena, ſeveral verſts above the mouth of the Olekma.
3. Olenſk, a town to be erected on the river Olenek.
4. Schiganſk, on the Lena, about 800 verſts from Yakuzk.
5. Sachiverſk, on the Indigirka.

Province of Okotzk,

CONTAINS 4 DISTRICTS.

1. Okotzk, on the mouth of the Okota, falling into a bay of the Eaſtern Ocean.
2. Ichiginſk, on the mouth of the river Ichigina, falling into the bay of Penſhina.
3. Aklanſk, on the ſmall river Aklan, falling into the river Penſhina.
4. Niſhnie-Kamtchatka, on the river Kamtchatka, about 30 verſts from its mouth.

APPENDIX, N° 5.

SINCE this volume was printed, the Reverend Mr. Smrirnove, chaplain to the Ruſſian legation in London, has publiſhed a *Survey of the Ruſſian Empire*, which enumerates the governments as they at preſent exiſt, and differs in a few inſtances from the geographical diviſions formed in 1782 and 1785, which are given in this volume, p. 341 and 497.

The Ruſſian Empire is divided into,

I. The Northern Region.
II. The Middle Region.
III. The Southern Region.

I. The Northern Region contains the following Governments:

1. St. Peterſburg.
2. Archangel.
3. Olonetz.
4. Vyborg, or Wyburgh.
5. Revel.
6. Riga.
7. Pſcov.
8. Tver.
9. Novogorod.
10. Vologda.

10. Vologda.
11. Yaroſlavl.
12. Koſtroma.
13. Viatka.
14. Pirme.
15. Tobolſk.

II. The Middle Region contains,

16. Muſcov,
17. Smolenſk.
18. Polotſk.
19. Moghilev.
20. Tichernigov.
21. Novgorod Sieverſkoi.
22. Kharkov.
23. Kourſk.
24. Orel.
25. Kalouga.
26. Toola.
27. Riazane.
28. Vladimir.
29. Nizney Novgorod.
30. Kazane.
31. Sinbirſk.
32. Penza.
33. Tambof.
34. Voronez.
35. Saratov.
36. Oufa.
The hordes of Kirghis kaiſacks.
37. Kolhyvan.
38. Irkoutſk.
The Kourilſkie iſlands.
The Aleoutſkie iſlands.

III. The

III. The Southern Region contains,

39. Kiev.
40. Ekatherinoſlav.
41. The province of Tavrida.
42. Habitations of the Don Kozaks.
43. The government of Caucaſus.

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.

00083717

Digitized with financial assistance from the
Government of Maharashtra
on 15 June, 2016